

**A CORPUS-BASED STUDY OF TIME METAPHORS
IN THE TEXT SIMPLIFICATION OF
'AROUND THE WORLD IN 80 DAYS'**

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**FACULTY OF LANGUAGES AND LINGUISTICS
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ABSTRACT

Corpus-based method is increasingly applied in the investigation of conceptual metaphors. Automatic semantic domain identification of target domain and source domain required when forming metaphors can now be carried out quite satisfactorily. In this study, the semantic domain tagger UCREL Semantic Analysis System (USAS) was used to explore the conceptualization of time in the novel ‘Around the World in 80 Days’ and its simplified version. Specifically, it is an investigation on how the concept of time is changed in a simplified text. First, semantic domains were extracted and then followed by a manual identification of metaphorical expressions using the Conceptual Metaphor Theory (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980). Next, the metaphor of TIME was classified according to its types to detect any gain or loss of metaphors after the text is simplified. Finally, the patterns of changes of metaphors in simplified literary texts were explored using the framework proposed by Deignan, Littlemore & Semino (2013). The results showed that USAS may be used for identification of semantic domains which is an important step in extracting metaphorical expressions from the texts. Two out of nine types of TIME metaphor initially found in the original text disappeared in its simplified version, i.e. personification and TIME IS DISTANCE metaphors. The patterns of changes of metaphors where the metaphors were added, removed, retained and altered provide an insightful perception on changes that occurred and the rationales of those changes when a text is simplified. The usability of a corpus tool in extracting the semantic domain of time in detecting metaphorical expressions has confirmed the potential of corpus-based methodology in analyzing conceptual metaphors. The combination of corpus-based method and cognitive metaphor theory provides an empirical support for the observation of the distribution of time metaphor in literary texts suggesting that the application of corpus-based method can provide versatility in linguistic analysis.

ABSTRAK

Kajian berasaskan kaedah korpus semakin kerap digunakan di dalam bidang metafora konsepsi. Pengenalpastian pengkelasan semantik secara automatik untuk mengenalpasti domain sasaran dan domain punca yang diperlukan semasa membentuk metafora kini boleh dilakukan dengan hasil yang lebih memuaskan. Di dalam kajian ini, tagger domain semantik Sistem Analisis Semantik UCREL (USAS) digunakan untuk meneroka pengkonsepsian masa dalam novel 'Around the World in 80 Days' dan dalam versi novel tersebut yang telah diringkaskan. Pertama, domain semantik dikenalpasti dan diikuti dengan pengenalpastian ungkapan metafora secara manual menggunakan Teori Konsepsi Metafora (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980). Seterusnya, metafora MASA diklasifikasikan mengikut jenis-jenisnya bagi mengesan penambahan atau pengurangan metafora apabila sesebuah teks diringkaskan. Akhir sekali, corak perubahan metafora di dalam teks sastera yang diringkaskan diteroka dengan menggunakan rangka kerja yang dicadangkan oleh Deignan, Littlemore & Semino (2013). Hasil kajian menunjukkan bahawa dengan menggunakan USAS, ia mungkin boleh membantu mengenalpasti domain semantik yang merupakan satu langkah penting dalam mengeluarkan ungkapan metafora dari teks. Dua daripada sembilan jenis metafora MASA yang pada mulanya ditemui di dalam teks asal didapati hilang didalam versi ringkas iaitu personifikasi dan MASA ADALAH JARAK. Corak perubahan metafora dimana metafora-metafora tersebut ditambah, dibuang, dikekalkan dan diubah memberi satu pandangan yang mendalam mengenai perubahan yang berlaku dan rasional perubahan tersebut apabila sesebuah teks diringkaskan. Kebolegunaan sesuatu alat korpus dalam mengeluarkan domain semantik masa bagi mengesan ungkapan metafora telah mengesahkan potensi kaedah kajian berasaskan korpus dalam menganalisa metafora konsepsi. Gabungan kaedah berasaskan korpus dan teori kognitif metafora memberikan satu sokongan empirikal untuk pemerhatian metafora masa dalam teks sastera yang mencadangkan

bahawa penggunaan kaedah berasaskan korpus boleh memberikan kepelbagaian dalam analisis linguistik.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Metaphors were once regarded as having only a “decorative” role in language (Deignan, 2005) where they functioned as symbols of something else. Metaphor used to be seen as a tool of figurative language or a rhetorical device that contributed to a noteworthy piece of writing (Lakoff & Johnson 1980). However, the rise of Conceptual Metaphor Theory (henceforth, CMT) as proposed by Lakoff & Johnson (1980) has put forward and spread the notion that metaphor plays a major role in human thought. In understanding human thought, abstract concepts derived from daily phenomena of life such as time and love are comprehended through the use of concrete concepts such as money and war. Taking advantage of the ability of CMT in providing a reliable basis of metaphor analysis, this study aims to investigate the concept of time in an original novel and its simplified version by using a corpus-based methodology, and subsequently delineate text simplification effects on time metaphor distribution.

1.1 Aims of the study

The main aim in this study is to demonstrate the use of corpus linguistics software in the identification of semantic domains, which is an initial step in identifying instances of metaphoric expressions. More importantly, it aims to contribute empirical evidence on the distribution of time metaphor in an original novel and its simplified version. The final objective is to find out the processes involved in text simplification by comparing the metaphors found in the original text against the simplified text in order to detect the changes made in metaphor distribution. The results from the comparison provide a basis

of analysis which would account for the implications of the steps taken in the process of preparing the text for different sets of audience.

Time, according to Boroditsky (2011) is a typical subject of conversation among us. Aparta (2006) claims that human beings rely on time to help them function well in society, and it is evident in the popularity of self-help resources such as books focusing on managing time wisely. We structure our daily activities with concepts of time, so much so that in some cases we do not need to mention the time to know what time it is. For example, we could probably make a good guess of the time such as morning when we are offered breakfast, afternoon for lunch and evening for dinner. Our society also forms an understanding that time is treated as being as valuable as money and possessions, by placing the value of cost, salary and session per hour on business matters, where staff are paid according to the hours they have worked, and cars, hotels and houses are rented according to the amount of hours, days and months.

Without the conceptualization of time through its representation in other tangible forms in our lives such as money and possessions, we would have trouble to operate daily transactions concerning time and money. Aparta (2006) observes that since time is prevalent in real life, it has been numerously explored in legends and literature, including current science fiction. Therefore it is only predictable to find it being included in the pool of discussions among the works of Jules Verne, the French writer acclaimed as the “father of science fiction” (Costello 1978 p.16), hence stressing the significant contribution of empirical evidence on the conceptualization of time.

1.2 Statement of problem

The purpose of this section is to highlight the discussions that contribute to the inquiries in this study. There are three important aspects in this study, namely, metaphor, simplified text, and corpus-based methodology.

The principal motivation in CMT is that metaphor is “central to thought, and therefore to language” (Deignan, 2005); in other words, we are able to make sense of things happening around us through using and understanding metaphors. Without metaphor, human beings would have problems structuring their thinking and knowledge, understanding abstract concepts and physical experiences, and interpreting situations or events (Deignan, 2005). For example, time is one of the many abstract concepts with which, without using metaphors, we would face problems when making statements or delivering opinions due to its “notorious” and complex nature (Kovecses, 2010). The use of metaphors in expressing intangible concepts such as time and love could end up in lengthy descriptive explanations in a text, contributing to a barrier in understanding the text especially for nonnative speakers. Often, metaphor stands as potentially one of the many language devices to be altered or removed from original texts to make way for simpler text.

One type of text that faces this kind of alteration is the simplified text, which could be defined as a text modified from an authentic text aimed at readers who do not have the opportunity to access the original text because of an age barrier and who do not possess appropriate proficiency to comprehend the original text (Deignan, Littlemore & Semino, 2013). The latter type of reader refers to nonnative learners of English such as those

who learn English as a Second Language (ESL). Thus, simplified texts are common in Malaysia since English has been adopted as a second language.

Simensen (1987) finds that during the text simplification process, publishers' guidelines require that descriptive passages and linguistic features such as abstract concepts, idiomatic expressions, ambiguity and unexplained allusions and figurative uses be removed. For example, a metaphorical expression of time such as '*He is behind time*' might be replaced with a more conventional, regular expression such as '*He is late*'. Therefore, metaphors found in simplified texts are the product of alterations such as removing or replacing the original metaphors, resulting in them being less striking and original (Deignan, Littlemore & Semino, 2013). The abundant availability of simplified texts used in Malaysian schools provides an opportunity to investigate the processes involved in metaphor distribution in text types from original to simplified text during the simplification process.

The development in information technology has influenced studies on language, and one of the most prominent effects is the creation of many types of software based on corpus linguistics methodology. One such tool is Wmatrix (Rayson, 2008) which can perform semantic domain tagging through one of its features, i.e. the semantic tagger, used to identify instances of metaphoric usage in a large text sample or corpus (Koller et al., 2008). Semantic domains can contribute to identification of semantic relations among word meanings (Koller et al., 2008; Gliozzo & Strappava, 2009). The domains, when combined and compared, can lead to identification of metaphors such as SOCIAL ENTITY IS PLANT (Charteris-Black, 2004:77). This approach to metaphor analysis has resulted in a more empirically based method of retrieving metaphors (Charteris-Black, 2004; Koller et al., 2008; Archer, Culpeper & Rayson, 2008) but analysis on

metaphor use in simplified texts, particularly in novels has yet to benefit from it. Using a corpus-based software such as Wmatrix would allow researchers to look at the data from a different perspective supported by the availability of specific reference corpora when comparing the use of specific semantic domains in specific texts i.e., the semantic domain of time in an original novel.

Studies on metaphor in fiction such as novels mostly focus on qualitative analysis of a writer's use of novel metaphors, which is limited to the researchers' own opinion and intuitions. Furthermore, these studies also focus on creative metaphors which are strictly specific to a writer's own technique and style without taking into account the more widespread use and function of metaphors as being central to the human mind, where the former are known as novel metaphors and the latter as conventional metaphors. Metaphorical expressions that are considered novel originate from poetry or literature and thus the analysis signifies the writer's individual style, while conventional metaphors are deeply embedded in and familiar to a certain language (Kovecses, 2010).

Studies in simplified literary texts have been mostly focused on their implementation in classroom practice, perceptions and attitudes of teachers and students and cultural values of the text with less attention given to the linguistic features of the simplified text. For example, one of the problems encountered by students when reading literary texts is the difficulty to comprehend complex and peculiar linguistic structures, as these texts often disregard the standard language as invariably prescribed in grammar books (Bakherkazemi & Alemi, 2010). Wmatrix has been used extensively in studies on figurative language in poetry, prose fiction and plays (Murphy, 2007; McIntyre and Walker, 2010; Maiwald, 2011; Deignan, Littlemore & Semino, 2013) but it has yet to provide an example of the comparison of semantic domains between an original novel

and its simplified version. It is therefore the goal of this study to demonstrate the use of the corpus-based software Wmatrix by expanding its coverage in retrieving semantic domains in extracting linguistic metaphorical expressions in an original novel and its simplified version and to further the discussion of the processes involved in simplification by providing the rationale for and implication of the simplification on metaphor distribution.

1.3 Research questions

This study endeavours to answer the following questions:

1. How can corpus-based methodology be applied for analysis in metaphor studies?
2. How are time metaphors changed and adapted from its original source text to its simplified text?
3. What are the implications of these changes?

1.4 Significance of the study

This study aims at providing a better understanding of the use of metaphors in the original novel by Jules Verne, which is one of the literary texts currently in use in Malaysian secondary schools. Individuals who would benefit from this study are ESL teachers and learners, policy makers and students, and individuals who are interested in metaphors and their use in literary texts. The study of metaphors is no longer confined to the exploration of using them as merely rhetorical devices. Instead, metaphors contribute to the knowledge of how human beings perceive the world through CMT. ESL teachers could take on this notion as a guide in delivering or helping students to discover the messages embedded in the literary texts analysed in this study. If students

have an initial grasp of the conceptualization of time in the novel before they begin reading, then they would be able to understand the story better.

To researchers in the field of conceptual metaphor studies, specifically in time metaphors, this study will provide empirical evidence of the existence of time metaphors in the genre of prose fiction and the processes taken by writers in rewriting or editing a text for a different audience. And finally, to researchers who would like to explore and make use of corpus-based methods and tools available for language study, it is hoped that the explanation on the steps and the additional adaptations taken by the author would be a guide in conducting studies using Wmatrix and its semantic annotation features.

1.5 Organization of this thesis

Following a five-chapter organization, the first chapter provides an Introduction of the thesis, where the chapter outlines the aims of the study, research questions, statement of problem, objectives of the study, significance of the study and definition of terms.

This is succeeded by the second chapter, the Literature Review which contains previous studies on three important aspects of this study: metaphor, simplified text and corpus-based methodology. Under the metaphor subsection, important points of discussion are CMT, metaphor identification procedures and time metaphor. The simplified text subsection looks at how simplified texts are viewed against original texts and their place in an ESL environment. Lastly, the corpus-based methodology subsection reviews the corpus software available for analysing metaphor.

Research Methodology in the third chapter describes the corpus-based method and software used in this study. In addition, this chapter also illustrates the data chosen and the steps taken to prepare the data for use with corpus-based software. More importantly, it justifies the rationality of using the aforementioned method.

Chapter four presents the Data Analysis where it delineates a three-step level of data analysis. In the first level, the results of semantic domain retrieval, the semantic domains found in the original and simplified text, will be presented. In the second level, the linguistic metaphorical expressions identified will be listed. Finally, in the third level, the metaphors found in both texts will be compared side-by-side in order to detect the steps taken during the simplification process and to identify the effects of simplification.

A summary of the findings of the study is presented in the final chapter: Conclusion. Here, I revisit and provide answers to the research questions.

1.6 Definition of terms

This section lists down and delineates the terminologies used in the discussion throughout the study. Understandably there are many definitions for each of the terms listed below. However, for the purpose of this study, the following definitions will be adhered to:

- a. **Corpus** refers to a group of written or spoken sampled texts, which are prepared in machine-readable form to be used for annotation of many types of linguistic knowledge (McEnery, Xiao & Tono, 2006).

- b. **Original and simplified text.** **Simplified text** refers to shortened texts with restricted characters, situations, events and vocabulary, with significantly less presence of figurative language compared to the original text it is derived from (Vincent 1986). In this study, it refers to a simplified version of the novel *Around the World in 80 Days*, adapted by Diane McFadden (2007), republished by Rentak Semasa (2011), in use in Malaysian secondary schools for students in Form 3. The **original text** refers to the English version translated from the French version of *Around the World in 80 Days* by George Makepeace Towle dated in 1873.
- c. **Metaphor** refers to conceptual metaphors or also known as cognitive metaphors (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980, Kovecses, 2010), which is defined as comprehending a conceptual domain in terms of another conceptual domain, and for the most part, understanding abstract concepts by making references to concrete concepts.
- d. **Semantic domain** refers to the identification of semantic relations among word meanings (Koller et al., 2008).

The terms below are taken from Kovecses (2010) and will be explained in Chapter 2:

- e. **Linguistic metaphors** refers to expressions or manifestations of conceptual metaphor through language such as words or phrases.
- f. **Conceptual domain** refers to any type of reasonable or systematic structure of understanding.

- g. **Source domain** refers to the conceptual domain used to construct metaphorical expressions in order to comprehend another conceptual domain.
- h. **Target domain** refers to the conceptual domain that is attempted to be understood by referring to the elements of the source domain
- i. **Mapping** refers to the standardized agreement between the component of conceptual elements of the target domain which is in parallel with the component of conceptual elements of source domain.

1.7 Summary

In this chapter, I have outlined the basic foundation of this study, where I stated the goals that I aim to accomplish along with the research questions I will address by using the chosen research methodology, corpus-based methodology. I have stated the main concerns in the three important aspects of this study and provided a gap for an empirical investigation to be conducted. I have also defined several terms deemed to be important and which will be used repeatedly throughout this thesis.

The next chapter will provide a review of previous studies on the three main elements that contribute to this study - metaphor, simplified text and corpus-based methodology.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

The introductory chapter gives descriptions of this study pertaining to matters such as problem statement, aims of the study, research questions, significance, limitations and definition of terms. In chapter two, the previous literature related to this study is presented and discussed. Specifically, this chapter is divided into three major fields of study - metaphor, corpus linguistics and simplified texts.

2.1 Metaphor

Metaphors were once thought to be found only in literary works, where writers used their language skills to present their worldview in a creative linguistic manipulation. Along with other types of figurative language, such as hyperboles or allegories, the use of metaphors in a literary piece is a yardstick to a writer's creativity and thus contributes to the value of the writing. Prior to cognitive linguistics, understanding the meaning of a written text did not involve an analysis of the metaphors used in the text (Deignan, 2005). Deignan further describes this phenomenon of metaphor as having a minor, "decorative" role in language, on the borderline of being "parasitic". By being "parasitic", the role of metaphors in influencing the meaning of a piece of writing is deliberately ignored. A writer's work becomes unique with the addition of metaphors, but they are thought to have only non-functional and superficial characteristics.

Metaphors in literary works are also used to convey a writer's individual style when discussing all kinds of daily activities. To illustrate, let us take a look at this excerpt

taken from the novel *Love in The Time of Cholera* by Gabriel Garcia Marquez as cited in Gibbs (1994), reproduced by Kovecses (2010, p.49):

Once he tasted some chamomile tea and sent it back, saying only, "This stuff tastes of window". Both she and the servants were surprised because they had never heard of anyone who had drunk boiled window, but when they tried the tea in an effort to understand, they understood: it did taste of window.

This excerpt shows how linguistic creativity such as metaphor contributes to the uniqueness of a piece of writing. It is unusual for tea to be described as a non-food element, let alone tasteless element such as a window. Since windows are made of wood, perhaps this is what the writer means; the tea tastes like someone has boiled the wood of the windows and served the tea to him. Nevertheless, the writer has managed to describe, however eccentrically, the taste of tea in a manner that is unconventional and yet not only understood by the readers but which contributes to the richness of the language of the novel as well.

Below is another example where metaphor is used to give an alternative perspective of life, an excerpt of Emily Dickinson's poem entitled "'Hope" is the thing with feathers':

*"Hope" is the thing with feathers—
That perches in the soul—
And sings the tune without the words—
And never stops—at all—*

Here, the human behaviour of anticipating something i.e. having hope is attributed to a bird's physical characteristics, where it has feathers, that it rests on something high and sings without words, which refers to the act of chirping. At the same time, the metaphors bring about an additional element i.e. being hopeful, where the characters of hope "*perches in the soul*" i.e. rests on a high place, which could only be imagined in the form of a shoulder of a human being. The chirping act that "*never stops – at all*" refers to the tireless reminder given by hope to a person. "*Hope*" is the persistence that keeps a human being from giving up on their dreams.

The use of metaphors in the above examples accounts for the individuality of the writer's language skills. The daily, normal life activity such as drinking tea and being hopeful is demonstrated using metaphors, uniquely according to the writer's own perception of the world hence creating authentic expressions of language.

However, as much as the contribution that metaphor has to many poems, plays or work of fiction by both distinguished and lesser known writers, it is still regarded as a decoration of language and part of a writer's prominent features, thus not having many functions other than otherwise stated. That is, until Lakoff and Johnson, in *Metaphors We Live By*, 1980, proposed a different, evolutionary role of metaphors.

2.1.1 Conceptual Metaphor Theory

The study of metaphor as a manifestation of thought is an important quest to find the cognitive essence that guides us when we communicate. The theory which claims the presence of metaphor as thought is widely known as Conceptual Metaphor Theory (henceforth CMT). Lakoff and Johnson (1980) posit in *Metaphors We Live By* that

metaphors are not only found in literary texts but are also pervasive in non-literary, daily conversation. Steen et al., (2010) propose that CMT has brought with it a contrasted view against the traditional view of metaphor as being “deviant, erratic, ornamental and spurious” (p. 1). The implicit messages carried by metaphors stimulate the use of concrete concepts, where this linguistic manipulation is referred to as ‘conceptual metaphor’. Conceptual metaphors in the form of metaphorical linguistic expressions confirm the representation of abstract concepts using concrete concepts.

Metaphors in literary texts are also formed of similar language in commonplace discourse as they share the cognitive values in human thought with metaphors in non-literary use (Kovecses, 2010). Clearly, the emergence of CMT has opened up opportunities for discoveries in larger areas in language study as it not only captures the concepts in literary texts, but also in other discourses, and challenges the analysis of metaphors in the original discourse they are found: in literary texts.

In Deignan (2005), a brief history of the rise of Conceptual Metaphor Theory is explained: admittedly there are studies that hint on the possibility of the existence of CMT, but it is the seminal publication, *Metaphors We Live By* by Lakoff and Johnson (1980) which explicitly defines the proposed theory and rigorously describes its intellectual value hence bringing it forward to a larger population of researchers. *Metaphors We Live By* is regarded as the reference point when studying metaphor, thought and language in various fields of study (Steen, 1999; Charteris-Black, 2004). As an early attempt to describe the functions of metaphor in representing state of mind, the volume by Lakoff and Johnson has been evolutionary, and in the present time, is still relevant.

Deignan (2005) also exemplifies Tomlinson's 1986 findings about a group of writers who, when asked to elaborate on their writing process, used gardening and cooking metaphors. The writing process is described metaphorically as a gardening activity that requires them to "*prepare the ground well, to water, to plant...*" (Tomlinson 1986: 68, cited in Deignan, 2005:1). This example shows how two concepts of different elements are put together through the production and comprehension of metaphors.

Another example is from Kovecses (2010) who lists examples of everyday, non-literary words that speakers of English employ when discussing life:

He's without direction in life.

It's where I want to be in life.

I'm at a crossroads in my life.

She'll go places in life.

He'll never let anyone get in his way.

She's gone through a lot in life.

Phrases such as '*without direction*', '*at a crossroads*' and '*go places*' are related to the concept of a journey. Kovecses (2010) notes that speakers of English make use of a lot of words found in the domain of journey when they talk about an intangible concept such as life. In this instance, the tangible and concrete concept of journey helps speakers to understand the intangible and abstract concept of life. The concept of journey, or as known in CMT the conceptual domain of JOURNEY in the above example is used to express an opinion about the conceptual domain of LIFE.

2.1.2 Source and target domain

One convenient way of understanding the view of CMT is provided by Kovecses (2010), where he cites: CONCEPTUAL DOMAIN A IS CONCEPTUAL DOMAIN B, derived from when it was first stated in Lakoff and Turner (1989), “*A metaphor with the name A IS B is a mapping of part of the structure of our knowledge of source domain B onto target domain A.*” (p. 59)

In the example about life and journey above, the Conceptual Metaphor is LIFE IS JOURNEY, where the conversation about life is talked about in the sense of going through a journey. It should also be noted here that the abstract concept that we are trying to understand is referred to as the TARGET DOMAIN (TD) and the concrete concept used to aid the understanding is referred to as the SOURCE DOMAIN (SD). One example of metaphor, which is the first example found in Lakoff and Johnson (1980:4), is ARGUMENT IS WAR:

Your claims are indefensible.

He attacked every weak point in my argument.

His criticisms were right on target.

I demolished his argument.

I've never won an argument with him.

You disagree? Okay, shoot!

If you use that strategy, he'll wipe you out.

He shot down all of my arguments.

Lakoff and Johnson (1980) state that arguments and war are separate concepts. However, when speakers of English use words such as ‘*indefensible*’, ‘*attacked*’ and ‘*demolished*’ when talking about ARGUMENT, they source out these words from the domain of WAR. English speakers understand, perform, talk and structure the target domain of ARGUMENT by the source domain of WAR.

2.1.3 Structural mapping

How do we understand, perform, talk and structure our thoughts as such that we are able to use a source domain to comprehend or deliver messages about a target domain? Or how do we understand abstract concepts such as LIFE, LOVE or ARGUMENT by basing them on concrete concepts such as MONEY, WAR or JOURNEY? The answer lies in the idea of structural mapping which is stated by Kovecses (2010) as “...a set of systematic correspondences between the source and the target in the sense that constituent conceptual elements of B corresponds to constituent element of A” (p. 7). The mapping system is embedded in the way we think of something as abstract as LOVE and LIFE. An example of the structural mapping of the LOVE IS A JOURNEY metaphor is as below:

Table 2.1

Systematic mapping in CMT (Kovecses, 2010, p. 9)

Source: JOURNEY		Target: LOVE
The travellers	→	The lovers
The vehicle	→	The love relationship itself
The journey	→	Events in the relationship
The distance covered	→	The progress made
The obstacles encountered	→	The difficulties experienced
Decisions about which way to go	→	Choices about what to do
The destination of the journey	→	The goal(s) of the relationship

When an abstract concept is systematically mapped to a concrete concept, it means that there are similarities in more than one of the elements of the concept for the target domain to be able to represent the abstract domain. These similarities are channelled into the characteristics of the abstract concept to enable the ‘structural mapping’, hence making the abstract concept more comprehensible to human thought. Referring to the example above, it is from the set of structural mappings that linguistic metaphorical expressions such as below arise from the conceptual metaphor LOVE IS A JOURNEY:

We have come a long way in this relationship.

I have come to a crossroads in this marriage.

We must work on the relationship to reach a happy end.

It is through the knowledge of systematic mapping that the conceptual metaphors make sense to our understanding of metaphor (Kovecses). However, this knowledge is subconscious to many people, where the realization of the existence of systematic structural mapping is only made explicit when discussing an analysis of metaphor. In this sense, the mapping system is embedded deeply in our thought but would be evoked when it needs to be used, i.e. when delivering messages about abstract things in life.

2.1.4 Metaphorical linguistic expressions

The central tenet of CMT is that metaphor is a matter of thought (Steen, 2011) which is manifested via language as words or phrases. The existence of metaphorical linguistic expressions is regarded as the proof of existence of metaphorical concepts. In other words, it is only by using the conceptual metaphors through conversations that the conceptual metaphors are realized.

In Tomlinson (1986, cited in Deignan, 2005), a writer describes his writing process by using words normally used in cooking such as “*simmering, back burner and aromas*”. Words such as “*simmering*”, “*back burner*” and “*aromas*” are three different elements by themselves but once we put a category to them, which is COOKING PROCESS, we can see why the concept is chosen to explain an abstract element such as WRITING PROCESS. Both concepts, abstract and concrete, have similarities in terms of both activities taking time and requiring a lot of patience (*simmering*) and when the need to take a break arises, both activities can be paused for a moment (*back burner*). Although peculiar, it is vital to describe exactly what the writer thinks of his writing process, as each individual has his or her own way of doing things.

It is through the use of the metaphorical linguistic expressions that we come to realize that there are conceptual elements embedded in the way we express ourselves. CMT makes a distinction between these two elements – the concept and the expression – to understand how metaphors are used in our lives (Hamdi, 2010). What is meant by the distinction is that there is a need to understand how to differentiate conceptual metaphor and metaphorical expression. The former refers to what is embedded in our thought, and the latter refers to the way we express our thoughts. For example, the conceptual metaphor TIME IS A RESOURCE is expressed through metaphorical expressions such as ‘*I don’t have much time left*’ or ‘*He gained several hours by taking the shortcut*’. The ability to make the distinction would apply in carrying out analysis of metaphors.

2.1.5 Metaphor identification

There are several methods to identify metaphors. Researchers aim for a standardization of metaphor identification, hence there has been a growing number of standardized methods to use when identifying metaphor. This is also an attempt to make the study of metaphor more empirical with standard procedures.

2.1.5.1 Lakoffian framework

When CMT first arose, it was understood that the components of what makes a metaphor consist of “*what we say*” and “*our mental concept*” (Lakoff and Johnson, 1980). The Lakoffian (Kintsch, 2008) framework consists of a mapping from abstract concept A onto concrete concept B as stated in Lakoff and Turner (1989, p. 59):

“A metaphor with the name A IS B is a mapping of part of the structure of our knowledge of source domain B onto target domain A.”

Kovecses (2010) maintains a similar approach to that taken by the Lakoffian framework. In explaining the framework of metaphor identification, he asserts that the process requires an abstract conceptual domain to be understood in terms of a concrete conceptual domain. Understanding conceptual domain here refers to the classification of metaphors in terms of their conventionality, function, nature and level of generality.

The conventionality of a metaphor depends on how well-established the metaphor is for a regular human being in everyday conversation and closely relates to the concept of arbitrariness. Perhaps one way to understand this is to ask, “*How ingrained is a certain*

metaphor in a certain linguistic community?” or “How frequently is it used?”. In this discussion, there is a distinction between conventional conceptual metaphor and conventional metaphorical expression. For example, the cliché *“Stop the world. I want to get off”*, would sound highly unconventional. However, it is deeply rooted in the conceptual metaphor of life as a journey, with a novel use of linguistic expression. The conceptual metaphor remains the same even though the language exploitation is highly creative.

There are three functions of metaphor in conceptual metaphor theory based on each cognitive function it performs - structural, ontological and orientational (Lakoff and Johnson, 1980). In structural metaphors, such as TIME IS MOTION, the structural elements of motion are mapped onto time by means of channelling a comparatively abundant structure to shape the meaning of time, which is a highly unfathomable concept. The ontological metaphors account for the understanding of a concept with less or no structure at all. Kovecses (2010) gives an example of an ontological metaphor: when we talk about the *mind*, we have very little knowledge of what it truly is, however, we understand it as an object without saying exactly what kind of object it is. Orientational metaphors, as the name suggests, refer to the quality of a metaphor in spatial being such as HAPPY IS UP and SAD IS DOWN which can be found in the expression “He’s been feeling very down lately”.

Many studies conducted using the Lakoffian framework focus on the distribution of metaphors in different discourses such as health, business, religion, politics, press reporting, pedagogical content, cross-linguistic, literary texts and many others (Heywood, Semino and Short, 2002; Charteris-Black, 2004; Pramling, 2010; Hamdi,

2010; Ravichandran Vengadasamy, 2011;). The openness of CMT in giving way to studies on metaphors in a vast range of texts makes the theory widely used.

There have been criticisms of this framework, as the evaluation of whether or not a word or a phrase is being expressed metaphorically depends on the researcher's judgement. However, efforts are taken to compile as many examples of metaphors as listed in several ways. First, there is an independent list available online called the MASTER METAPHOR LIST (Lakoff, Espenson and Schwartz, 1991). Another way is by listing examples of metaphors in the Metaphor and Metonymy Index at the end of a metaphor guide book (Kovecses, 2010). Other than that, Charteris-Black (2004) has gathered findings from various discourses and texts in a publication on its own, explaining the different types of metaphors found in various discourses.

2.1.5.2 The Pragglejaz Method

The Pragglejaz Method is the concerted effort of a group of ten researchers from different higher learning institutions (Peter Crisp, Raymond Gibbs, Alice Deignan, Graham Low, Gerard Steen, Lynne Cameron, Elena Semino, Joe Grady, Alan Cienki, and Zoltan Kovecses) who have collaborated to formulate a metaphor identification procedure. This is an attempt to present a standard reliable and comprehensive system of identifying words that are used metaphorically which could be applied across many kinds of texts and discourses (Pragglejaz Group, 2007).

This group of researchers who would rather be addressed as the Pragglejaz Group propose a metaphor identification procedure (MIP) using the following steps (Pragglejaz Group, 2007:3):

1. Read the entire text–discourse to establish a general understanding of the meaning.
2. Determine the lexical units in the text–discourse
3.
 - a) For each lexical unit in the text, establish its meaning in context, that is, how it applies to an entity, relation, or attribute in the situation evoked by the text (contextual meaning). Take into account what comes before and after the lexical unit.
 - b) For each lexical unit, determine if it has a more basic contemporary meaning in other contexts than the one in the given context. For our purposes, basic meanings tend to be:
 - More concrete; what they evoke is easier to imagine, see, hear, feel, smell, and taste.
 - Related to bodily action.
 - More precise (as opposed to vague)
 - Historically older.
 - c) If the lexical unit has a more basic current–contemporary meaning in other contexts than the given context, decide whether the contextual meaning contrasts with the basic meaning but can be understood in comparison with it.
4. If yes, mark the unit as metaphorical.

According to the group, this procedure has been formulated in light of the concern about the fact that researchers would probably have differing opinions in determining metaphoric characteristics of a word or phrase. Studies in metaphor also lack

delineations on the formulation of metaphorical expressions and only focus on the objective and needs of the studies. This contributes to the criticisms of the CMT as lacking empirical precision.

The main concern of the procedure is to lay the foundations of identifying the metaphorical use of a lexical unit in a particular text. However, the procedure does not take into account the conventionality of metaphors as found in conceptual metaphor theory, which in turn opens up the possibility to find novel metaphors as well. It is also not to say that all words that are found to be metaphorical in this procedure will be the same for other regular speakers of a language, and lastly, when a word is marked as being metaphorical, it does not necessarily mean it is a metaphor; instead it could be another type of figurative language being used. To demonstrate, the Pragglejaz Group (2007) lists down an example of the analysis of the initial sentence from a press report “The Independent (internet edition)” titled “Sonia Gandhi stakes claim for top job with denunciation of Vajpayee”.

For years, Sonia Gandhi has struggled to convince Indians that she is fit to wear the mantle of the political dynasty into which she married, let alone to become premier.

Before the identification process begins, the whole article must be read to get a general description of the article. Then, the whole sentence is divided between the lexical units:

/ For / years /, Sonia Gandhi / has / struggled / to / convince / Indians / that / she / is / fit /
to / wear / the / mantle / of / the / political / dynasty / into / which / she / married /, let
alone / to / become / premier /.

The examples in Table 2.2 and Table 2.3 consist of only two words out of 27 lexical units in the sentence:

Table 2.2

Contextual vs. basic meaning in the word 'struggle'

struggled	
a) Contextual meaning	“struggled” here demonstrates the barrier faced by a person in attaining a goal, which is to try to change perspective of others from negative to positive.
b) Basic meaning	The basic meaning is taken from the Shorter Oxford Dictionary on Historical Principles where it means ‘to use one’s physical strength against someone or something’ as in She picked up the boy, but he struggled and kicked. Historically, this meaning is older than the contextual meaning.
c) Contextual vs. basic	There is a contrast between the contextual meaning and the basic meaning. We comprehend the abstractness of the effort taken and difficulties faced using characteristics of physical effort.
d) Metaphorically used?	Yes.

Table 2.3

Contextual vs. basic meaning in the word 'Indians'

Indians	
a) Contextual meaning	The word “Indians” denotes the residents of the country India in the present day, and specifically refers to the people who can participate in elections.
b) Basic meaning	Basically, ‘Indians’ refers to all residents of India.
c) Contextual vs. basic	There is no contrast between the contextual meaning and the basic meaning.
d) Metaphorically used?	No.

According to the procedure, 6 out of 27 lexical units in the sentence are regarded as being metaphorically used. It can be seen that the steps taken to identify each and every word could be meticulous. It would also take a long time to find all the basic and contextual meanings of each word. Although this method would definitely be more empirical because of its systematic and standardized identification procedure, it would however take a longer time to process and require many references to a dictionary.

2.1.5.3 MIPVU

In the updated development of the Metaphor Identification Procedure (Pragglejaz Group, 2007), additional elements have been applied to the procedure as described by Steen et al., (2010). In this enhanced method revised as MIPVU, the manual for identification of metaphor-related words are stated in 6-steps as follows:

1. Find metaphor-related words (MRWs) by examining the text on a word-by-word basis.
2. When a word is used indirectly and that use may potentially be explained by some form of cross-domain mapping from a more basic meaning of that word, mark the word as metaphorically used (MRW).
3. When a word is used directly and its use may potentially be explained by some form of cross-domain mapping to a more basic referent or topic in the text, mark the word as direct metaphor (MRW, direct).
4. When words are used for the purpose of lexico-grammatical substitution, such as third person personal pronouns, or when ellipsis occurs where words may be seen as missing, as in some forms of co-ordination, and when a direct or indirect meaning is conveyed by those substitutions or ellipses that may potentially be explained by some form of cross domain mapping from a more basic meaning, referent, or topic, insert a code for implicit metaphor (MRW, implicit).
5. When a word functions as a signal that a cross domain-mapping may be at play, mark it as a metaphor flag (Mflag).
6. When a word is a new-formation coined, examine the distinct words that are its independent parts according to steps 2 through 5.

In these improved steps to identify metaphorical instances, it can be seen that step 1 and step 2 are direct references to the original MIP. Steps 3 and 4 give more descriptions on identifying other types of metaphors. Step 5 is a new element added to the procedure which takes into consideration the signals of metaphor. Lastly, step 6 gives an additional element of metaphor identification where it guides researchers when facing unknown lexical units.

Clearly, the steps in MIPVU are more detailed and insist on intricate analysis on the part of the researcher. Again, it would require a lot of time to analyse each word, and although the steps in MIPVU would aid future researchers with its empirical value, working with texts of thousands of words would certainly require a high level of concentration and would be suitable for group research.

2.1.6 Parts of speech (POS) of metaphor

Studies on forms of linguistic metaphorical expression have shown that analysis on what constitutes the manifestation of a conceptual metaphor can provide evidence of figurative meaning. The process of POS tagging can aid the identification of word forms used figuratively. Corpus data can provide insights into what makes the distinction between literal and figurative word forms (Wikberg, 2008).

Several parts of speech are found to be key lexical items in metaphorical expressions. Deignan, Littlemore and Semino (2013) delineate five parts of speech or word classes to be commonly associated with metaphorical linguistic expressions. They are nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs and prepositions. In previous studies on the forms of metaphors, Goatly (1997) states that the noun is the most used part of speech. Other

studies contribute mixed findings on the forms of metaphors. Verbs are thought to also dominate in certain texts (Cameron, 2003), while there are also others who are of the opinion that both nouns and verbs play major roles in metaphorical expressions (Shutova, Sun and Korhonen, 2010). One study adds another point to the debate that verbs and prepositions are the most prominent lexical items found in metaphors (Dorst, 2011).

2.1.7 Time metaphor

The concept of time is thought to be a perplexing matter to most people, as Kovecses (2010) describes, time is a “*notoriously difficult concept to understand*”. Therefore, it is not a surprise to see that time is one of the initial examples of conceptual metaphor in Lakoff and Johnson (1980). In Lakoff and Turner (1989), the conceptualization of time is related closely to our exposure to life and death. This is because, the passing of time is considered as a motion which causes unavoidable events. Every event is viewed as having a doer and thus viewed as an outcome of an action. Therefore, time is also viewed as an agent who has the power to control things.

Barmi and Inoue (2007) studied six out of the 154 Shakespearean sonnets and found out that the metaphorical conceptualization of time is pervasive throughout this particular selection of sonnets. They found many conventional metaphors thus confirming the cognitive view of metaphor as being central in human thought. Another claim made by the authors is that contrary to traditional literary studies, the Lakoffian framework has proven to present a higher potential when analysing literary texts by means of structural mapping, which makes the structure and content of literary texts precise and discernible.

Boroditsky (2011) posits that time is “*ubiquitous yet ephemeral*”. She questions the ability of human beings to think about intangible things that are far within human touch and yet invasive in our mind when we think of ideas, love, justice and principles, among others. One such intangible thing is time. Aimed at finding the answers to how people conceptualize their mental representations of time, she found that human beings’ discourse on time depends on their languages’ view of time, the immediate context of language and the type of metaphors being employed at the time of discourse. She concludes that the speaker’s languages and cultural understanding shape the speaker’s conceptualization of time. For example, the respondents in the study were asked to arrange sets of cards that represent “temporal progression” (a person becoming old, a growing crocodile, etc.). The Australian aborigines, the Pomuraaw who use the Kuuk Thaayorre language do not have the “left” and “right” words in their vocabulary, so instead they arranged the cards from east to west depending on their seating position. Boroditsky comments how “beautiful” the patterns were which showed how the representation of time is deeply embedded in the human mind and is spontaneously used to describe time-related actions.

In order to present the time metaphors found in previous studies, I have organized the writing by listing down each metaphor with examples of its linguistic expressions. This is to aid exploration on the time metaphors by looking at each type of metaphor instead of listing down the time metaphors found in various studies which would ultimately result in redundancies. Moreover, these metaphors of time are found in different genres of texts and sources (newspaper, dictionary, cultural references, literary texts such as poems, novels, plays, and sonnets). Having a large resource of references could only mean that the identification and classification of metaphors could be categorized systematically. Furthermore, since this study looks at all words related to the concept of

time, any time metaphors in the findings of this study that are not found in the references could be regarded as additions to the studies on time metaphor.

The time metaphors below are found from the following sources which include previous studies, books and documents available online and in print: Lakoff and Johnson (1980), Lakoff and Turner (1989), Master Metaphor List (Lakoff, Espenson and Schwartz, 1991), Boroditsky (2000), Radden (2006), Barmi and Inoue (2007), Shie (2008), Hamdi (2010), Kovecses (2010), Boroditsky (2011), and Deignan, Littlemore and Semino (2013).

2.1.7.1 TIME IS MOTION IN SPACE

There are two important concepts involved when time is seen as motion, namely TIME PASSING IS AN OBSERVER'S MOTION OVER A LANDSCAPE and TIME PASSING IS MOTION OF AN OBJECT. In other terms, when time is in motion, it is called moving-time and when the observer is in motion, it is called moving-ego. In short, the latter refers to when TIME moves in space around the observer, and the former refers to when TIME is static and the observer moves around TIME.

In the first type, time moves like a living thing, while the object or observer is static, observing time that moves towards the object. The examples of TIME PASSING IS MOTION OF AN OBJECT metaphor are:

When Tuesday comes...

Three O'clock is approaching.

Thursday passed without incident.

In the second type, time is static and the observer moves around time. The examples of TIME PASSING IS AN OBSERVER'S MOTION OVER A LANDSCAPE metaphor are:

She extended her stay in Malaysia over many years.

She passed the time happily.

We're getting close to Christmas.

The metaphor where moving-ego is applied shows how speakers understand the concept of a human being's movement when passing time. It is in this regard that time is viewed as non-static and the observer plays an active role.

2.1.7.2 TIME IS MONEY

When people describe time as money, it has a close relation with the fact that human daily activities are closely related to the value of money. For example, some jobs are paid according to the value per hour or day. The more or less you work, the more or less you gain money. It is therefore not a strange phenomenon for speakers of English to use the concept of the value of money when talking about time. Among examples pervasive in our everyday communication are:

You're wasting my time.

I've invested a lot of time in this study.

How does she spend her time these days?

2.1.7.3 TIME IS A RESOURCE

This metaphor is closely related to the TIME IS MONEY metaphor. It describes how we see time as a resource or commodity. Expressions related to this metaphor are:

We're almost out of time.

Find a better use for your time.

Don't waste time.

2.1.7.4 (BOUNDED) TIME IS A CONTAINER

When time is regarded as a container of things, it refers to the act of referring time using prepositions which indicate that a thing is in something else, such as *in*, *into* and *out*.

This conceptualization of time is similar to TIME IS SPACE.

He did it in three minutes.

In 1968. . .

We're well into the century.

He's like something out of the last century.

2.1.7.5 A SCHEDULE IS A MOVING OBJECT

In this metaphor, schedule in this sense means any pre-planned event and the events are regarded as moving objects.

He was behind (the) schedule.

Then he got ahead of schedule.

The class was trying to keep up with the schedule.

2.1.7.6 Personification

Personification metaphors allow English speakers to deliver, receive and understand utterances about intangible entities around us with our own characteristics as human beings (Kovecses, 2010). This type of metaphor originates from the EVENTS ARE ACTIONS metaphor (Lakoff and Turner, 1979). Some of the examples of the personification of time are:

Time sweeps away our past emotions.

Days come and go, and we have no control over them.

2.1.7.7 TIME IS DISTANCE

This type of metaphor refers to the act of quantifying time according to the distance taken to reach from one place to another. This type of metaphor is not present in any of the previous studies, however, it is found in the data in the present study. Details on this type of time metaphor can be found in section 4.2.1.8.

2.2 Corpus-based Methodology

The word “*corpus*” originates from Latin which means “*body*”. In corpus linguistics, the definition of corpus refers to the text or data of an analysis which is “*any collection of more than one text*” (McEnery and Wilson, 1996, p. 21). Meyer (2002 as cited in Deignan, 2005) states that a corpus is “*a relatively large collection of naturally occurring texts, which have been stored in machine-readable form*”. Meyer’s definition includes an important element in corpus linguistics where a corpus (plural “*corpora*”) must be stored in electronic form. These electronic collections of texts are then studied using one or more computer programs (Deignan, 2005). Studies that are regarded as using a corpus-based methodology are those which make use of the corpus predominantly to propose, investigate or demonstrate a particular theory of language (Tognini-Bonelli, 2001, p. 65). Sinclair (1997) defines corpus linguistics as simply the study of language through corpus-based research, but it differs from traditional linguistics in its insistence on the systematic study of authentic examples of language in use. According to Biber, Conrad and Reppen (1998), a corpus analysis must have these characteristics:

- a) *It is empirical, analysing the actual patterns of language use in natural texts;*
- b) *It utilizes a large and principle collection of natural texts, known as “corpus” as the basis for analysis;*
- c) *It makes extensive use of computers for analysis, using both automatic and interactive techniques;*
- d) *It depends on both quantitative and qualitative analytical techniques.* (p. 4)

The present study adheres to the general shared qualities of corpus investigations where it analyses the patterns of use of metaphorical expressions across a literary text and its simplified version. The collection of text is more than 80,000 words combined, and it uses the corpus tool Wmatrix (Rayson, 2008) for the quantitative analysis, and manual identification which is qualitative in nature, according to the Lakoffian framework, to identify metaphors.

Corpus-based metaphor analysis is regarded as a remedy to the instances where the conceptual metaphor theory provides less empirical basis despite having a strong theoretical foundation (Koller et al., 2008). Apart from that, the ability of a corpus-based approach to analyse a large set of data with more variety of texts enables it to make stronger claims about language (Charteris-Black, 2004). Having a large number of texts to be analysed simultaneously would contribute to the representativeness of the findings of the study. It is not surprising therefore, for researchers in metaphor studies who used to manually identify metaphors in a limited number of texts have now shifted to corpus-based metaphor analysis which enables them to analyse more texts in a shorter time.

Having a larger set of data does not guarantee that the findings are able to make a precise description of a language. However, one of the ways to address this issue is through the concept of representativeness. According to McEnery, Xiao and Tono (2006), representativeness refers to the condition where a corpus is able to represent the variety of the language it is intended to represent. This can be done when the analysis on the contents yields findings that can be generalized onto another set of smaller or larger corpora. Depending on the purpose of the study, a corpus (such as British National English or BNC) can be representative. For example in this study, a subset of

BNC is used as the reference corpora, the BNC Imaginative Writing section. This subset is a collection of texts which is thought to be representative of the genre of literary texts. Through the process of referring a sample corpus (i.e.: the data in this study) with the reference corpus (i.e.: BNC Imaginative Writing), the findings of what substitute the language of literary texts are based on the salient features in the reference corpus which are found to be present in the sample corpus.

Semino and Steen's (2008) review of the directions in and obstacles to the study of metaphor in literary texts shows that previous studies have contributed to the discoveries of the patterns of use of metaphors within texts, author's use of metaphors and metaphors in specific literary genres. However, to fully understand the use of metaphor in literary texts, the authors suggested for future studies to use a multidisciplinary approach by combining literary techniques with discourse analysis, corpus linguistics and psycholinguistics.

Three studies which were initially manually analysed were reanalysed using the corpus-based approach and revealed more in-depth findings allowing for more empirically supported statements (Koller, et al., 2008). For example, in the manual analysis, the authors found 8 instances of metaphors in the semantic domain "objects generally" and 17 in the combination of "life and living things: animals" and "plants". However, after a corpus-based analysis was conducted, there were actually 27 metaphors in the semantic domain "objects generally" and a gain of 50% (34 metaphors) in the semantic domains "life and living things: animals" and "plants". Koller et al also note that Wmatrix could assign semantic tags to words in a corpus which correspond to "the source and target domains of metaphorically used types", increasing the value of the software in metaphor analysis which was manually done before.

Using corpus-based methods combined with traditional manual metaphor analysis, Deignan, Littlemore and Semino (2013) analysed two versions of the Shakespearean play “Romeo and Juliet”. The authors utilized Wmatrix to differentiate the original play and its simplified version. The authors not only detected anticipated changes such as replacing ‘thou/thee’ with ‘you’ but also unpredictable ones such as strategies employed to reduce figurative language density in preparing the text for a different set of readers. In other words, the corpus-based approach managed to aid the researchers in identifying systematic patterns of simplification by extracting information that would otherwise be impossible if the analysis were conducted manually.

2.2.1 Corpus Tools

Wmatrix (Rayson, 2008) is a web-based software application developed at the University Centre for Computer Corpus Research on Language (hereafter known as UCREL) in Lancaster University (UK). The web-based application with simple, user-friendly interface enables researchers to access several corpus annotation and retrieval tools under the UCREL project. Wmatrix provides a bundle of valuable corpus tools for purposes such as grammatical category tagging, also known as part-of-speech tagging (CLAWS), semantic domains (USAS) and generates frequency lists and concordances. The acronyms stand for Constituent Likelihood Automatic Word-tagging System (CLAWS) and UCREL Semantic Annotation System (USAS).

Wmatrix is available for use in various web browsers such as Chrome, Firefox or Internet Explorer and it can run on all major operating systems - Mac, Windows, Linux and Unix. In short, it is accessible to any user with a stable Internet connection with any computer installed with the web browsers mentioned above. Wmatrix was not initially

intended for corpus linguistics studies and was in fact created for another project called REVERE (Rayson et al, 2000, cited in Rayson, 2008), with the initial aim to investigate information extraction from documents in the field of software engineering. However, due to its usability and high potential in corpus linguistics study, it has become popular among researchers looking for tools to assist their studies in the corpus linguistics field. It is for this reason that the present study employs the tool for finding instances of metaphoric use in the original and simplified text of *Around the World in 80 Days*.

2.2.2 Corpus Annotation

According to McEnery, Xiao and Tono (2006), before extracting linguistic information from a text, it is essential for the text to go through an encoding process. For example, if the aim of a study is to extract examples of the use of various adjectives in a particular text genre, then the step of assigning each word in the text with parts of speech (POS) must be executed in order to make a distinction between the adjectives and all other POS.

The benefits of annotating a corpus are diverse. McEnery, Xiao and Tono (2006) enlist at least five benefits of corpus annotation. First, it eases up the process of extracting information from an annotated corpus where both human and machine analysts benefit from the increased rapidity of data processing. Second, since the process of corpus annotation needs a large amount of financial support, it is essential to note that having a reusable annotated corpus would ensure that the money spent for the project is worthwhile. Third, the multifunctionality of an annotated text not only helps to achieve the original objective of a study conducted on a particular corpus, it could also provide unexpected findings. Fourth, the openness of linguistic analysis as evident in the

annotated corpus ensures that there is a valid and visible proof of analysis that is available for further clarification. Finally, and most importantly, corpus annotation could be the basis for a standardized source of reference. A corpus annotation system that works on many kinds of texts or languages accommodates the common ground for future studies.

In the current study, two types of corpus annotation are utilized i.e. first, the POS tagger CLAWS7 (section 3.2.3) and second, the semantic domain tagger, USAS (section 3.2.2). Both annotation systems add in-depth characteristics of the texts analysed in this study. They successively contribute to the automatic extraction of linguistic analysis before continuing with manual identification of metaphorical expressions in the texts.

2.3 Simplified texts in the ESL classroom

One of the challenges faced by teachers of English as a second language is selecting or preparing reading texts. The texts selected must contain suitable grammatical and vocabulary content according to learners' level of mastery of English. Apart from that, they should also have a scaffolding quality to encourage students to read more and challenge them in tackling difficult linguistic aspects. This will be beneficial to the learners in the long term of the learning process and build up learners' independence and confidence. However, the difficult linguistic aspects often stand as barriers especially for students who lack mastery of English as a second language.

In this case, simplified materials come to the rescue. According to Deignan, Littlemore and Semino (2013), simplified reading materials are texts modified from authentic texts aimed at readers who do not have the opportunity to access original texts because of the age barrier and who do not possess appropriate proficiency to comprehend original texts. Students are expected to learn a text which is normally tailored according to their grades - beginner, intermediate and advanced - in order to learn specific vocabulary items and/or prepare them for reading authentic materials later on.

The decision of whether to use authentic or simplified materials when teaching English to learners of a second or foreign language is highly debatable. There is a considerable amount of proponents of authentic materials (Swaffar, 1985; Goodman and Freeman, 1993; Maley, 2008) while there are also others who believe that simplified texts have their own place in L2 learning (Long and Ross, 1993; Crossley, Allen and MacNamara, 2011b). It is interesting to note that there is a less than satisfactory amount of research on the linguistic features of simplified texts (Crossley and McNamara, 2008; Crossley et

al., 2007). The recent studies on simplified texts focus on the vocabulary (Claridge, 2005), student and teachers' perception (Lim, 2008) and learner background and attitudes (Siti Norliana Ghazali, 2008), among others.

In ESL classrooms, one type of simplified material that is abundant is the simplified literary text. The original purpose of bringing literary texts into the ESL classroom is to encourage learners' awareness of various forms and structures of language as evident in genre-based texts for example short stories, novels, ballads and sonnets (Imran Ho-Abdullah and Ruzy Suliza Hashim, 2007). The authors further explain that exploring literary texts through gathering information on their setting and plots, among others, would enhance a learner's ability to do interpretations, which in turn will improve the learner's competency and critical thinking skills. Braz da Silva (2001) proposes that literary texts could provide enjoyment to both teachers and learners, create meaningful experience, and be beneficial in attracting students' interest in learning. It is also asserted that bringing literary content into the class is highly beneficial in its ability to encourage reading habits, enhance knowledge, comprehension and production of words and sentence structures (Ganakumaran Subramaniam, 2003).

According to the proponents of simplified texts, simplification can give positive effects especially on literal comprehension, plus, modifying the texts would also aid comprehension thus leading to simplified texts being found more often in L2 classroom compared to original texts (Crossley, Allen and MacNamara, 2011b). In order to cater to the needs of L2 learners, original texts are shortened, abridged and adapted according to particular structures and word counts listed by the policy makers during the particular stage of learning English.

Rod Ellis (1993) explores further the nature of simplified texts by making a distinction between what he labels “*graded input*” and “*dependent exemplification*”. Graded input is where detailed instruction is used as a guide to modify texts, while the latter refers to Widdowson’s 1978 definition (cited in Ellis, 1993) where learners are guided towards learning specified language aspects, focusing on linguistic structures instead of comprehension. As West (1950, quoted in Ellis, 1993) observes:

Simplification and abridgment have brought to life not a few books which, for the foreign reader and the English school child, would be otherwise completely dead.

On the other end of the continuum, authentic texts are deemed to be most appropriate with the proponents of authentic texts relaying harsh critiques on the use of simplified texts. Long and Ross (1993) delineate the weaknesses of simplified texts as being not much of an aid in comprehension as the process of shortening a sentence does not always help especially if the writer has to limit his number of words to explain a complex situation. Also, Long and Ross conclude that too much focus on form makes reading less natural, with no enjoying the process of reading. Swaffar (1985) labels these texts as having a ‘pseudo-intent’ whose main goal is to teach language instead of to communicate, while Maley (2008) regards simplified texts as unauthentic poor models of the language, and the lack of cues as a result of shortened sentences makes them more challenging for learners to comprehend (Goodman and Freeman, 1993).

Goodman and Freeman observe that in teaching English to second language learners, there is an accepted notion that simplified content aids language learning, making it widely used in planning the strategies and creating materials to teach. It is also noted that the proponents of simplified content maintain that it is easier to grasp a language by

limiting aspects of the language. Goodman and Freeman however stress that second language learners do not perform simplification; it is performed by the people involved in materials selection. They conclude that simplified materials are made up of less cohesive texts with fewer cues, which in turn make the process of learning more complicated.

Brumfit (1993) posits that materials writers must be equipped with extensive knowledge and awareness of the specific features of language in order to perform a good simplification or adjustment of the materials for ESL learners. He further states that although simplification would allow learners to focus on vital aspects of the language, it also has the potential of getting in the way of comprehension itself.

Lotherington-Woloszyn (1993) describes ESL simplified content as texts created particularly with the intention of making a language more approachable. Also known as graded readers, they are specifically designed for learners of English as a Second Language. Graded readers provide contents that are simplified according to level of mastery, which is beneficial in language teaching and learning. She also notes in her study that simplified texts, according to her respondents' reactions, are not simple at all. The subjects in her study underestimated their capability when dealing with authentic material. The study concludes that simplified texts do not have a significant effect on text comprehension but they affect respondents' attitude towards a text where respondents regard simplified texts as being easier to tackle compared to authentic texts.

Claridge (2005) sets another path of discussion in deciding between authentic or simplified materials. Instead of comparing the texts to the corpus of general English use, which does not fully represent the environment of the authentic texts i.e. for fictional

reading materials, she used the RANGE software (Nation and Heatley, 2003) to build her own reference list. This list known as the Base List is built from the authentic version of the texts. She used the list to compare the vocabulary found in the simplified texts with the vocabulary found in the authentic texts. Claridge concludes that a well-written simplified version of a text could indeed be authentic, as there is a similarity in the distribution of these linguistic features – patterns of use of structure, discourse markers, redundancy, collocations and high and low frequency vocabulary. Her findings suggest that the two texts are comparable and thus could prepare the learners for authentic reading materials, as the simplified text possesses features similar to the authentic text.

Long and Ross (1993) state that simplified texts are texts with fewer words, shorter sentences with fewer *“idiomatic expressions, complex syntax and low frequency vocabulary items”* intended for non-native speakers’ improvement of their speaking and writing skills. They observe that among the ESL publishers, it is found that the materials writers limit a simplified text to contain only predetermined structures and tenses with a fixed number of words, apart from eliminating difficult language patterns.

Crossley et al. (2007) assert that there is a less than satisfactory amount of research dedicated to examine the linguistic features of L2 reading texts, as more attention is given to the learners’ performance after testing with different texts (simplified or authentic) on recall and comprehension tests. Therefore it is suggested that there is a need to explore the “what” (linguistic features of L2 reading texts) rather than focusing on the “how” (e.g. pedagogical implications, students’ performance, motivation and approach) when discussing the L2 materials selection.

2.3.1 Simplified texts in Malaysia

In the Malaysian ESL environment, simplified reading texts are abundant, particularly in the KBSM Literary Component where a policy shift has led to the introduction of an additional component in learning and teaching of English as a second language (ESL). Various texts written by Malaysian, British, European, Australian, American and African writers have been made available to students in secondary schools from Form 1 to Form 5. Out of five English periods, one is allocated for the literary component. ESL learners in Malaysian secondary schools are expected to read literary texts extensively not only for scholastic but for personal achievement.

There are many studies on the literary component in secondary schools in Malaysia which circle around the area of students' and teachers' perception and the selection of literary materials. As Nor Hashimah Isa and Che Ton Mahmud (2012) state, incorporating literary components would positively impact students' "emotional and spiritual growth" by comprehension of foreign "cultures, values and traditions". It is also said that the varieties of genres of writing introduced by exploring literary texts such as short stories, novels, ballads and sonnets are beneficial to a learner's "sensitivity to diverse forms and structures" (Imran Ho Abdullah and Ruzy Suliza Hashim, 2007). Apart from that, it enhances the mastery of analytical and inquisitive skills when a learner analyses a text's "setting, characterization, plot and point of view". Ganakumaran Subramaniam (2003) posits that imposing a literature component can encourage learners to read, boost learners' grasp on the form and function of vocabulary and syntax and expose learners to a native speaker's language experience.

There are quite a number of studies on the effect of the materials on the learners, but there is a significant gap on the understanding of the texts themselves. Looking at the previous studies on ESL materials in Malaysia, we can find studies on students' and teachers' perceptions and attitudes (Lim, 2008; Dulip Singh, 2006; Siti Norliana, 2008), stylistics and teaching approach (Ganakumaran Subramaniam, 2003; Hwang and Mohamad Amin Embi, 2007) and cultural values and text selection (Imran Ho-Abdullah and Ruzy Suliza Hashim, 2007). However, none of these studies has shed light on the specific linguistic features that can be found in the texts used in Malaysian ESL classes.

2.4 Summary

The pervasiveness of metaphor in our everyday lives influences the way we think and speak (Steen, 2010), and thus it has also influenced the manifestation of thought in written forms of communication such as literary texts. Conceptual Metaphor Theory provides a means of unravelling such manifestations of thought. Comprehending literary texts therefore requires a look into the distribution of metaphors in order to understand the embedded meaning in the texts.

How pervasive is the use of metaphor in our everyday lives? It is possible to answer this question by using the corpus linguistics method. The large collection of natural texts (such as BNC) gathered from the real use of language might be representative of what constitutes our metaphorical nature of communication. Furthermore, the availability of corpus linguistics tools has opened up many possibilities for many studies to be conducted in a manner which involves fast processing of data and the availability to process a large amount of data. The use of Wmatrix on many types of texts such as

business, religion and literary texts (Charteris-Black, 2004; Koller et al., 2008; Deignan, Littlemore and Semino, 2013) has proven its usability and reliability.

Although there are many studies involving simplified literary texts in Malaysia, they are largely focused on their implementation in classroom teaching and lack attention on the characteristics of the texts used. However, there has been no study which has addressed the changes in figurative language use when a text is simplified and this study aspires to provide the empirical evidence on the issue.

Looking at the availability of previous literature in the field of conceptual metaphor, corpus linguistics and simplified texts, evidently there has been a lack of attention paid to the functions of metaphors in the simplified texts which are brought to various ESL classrooms in Malaysia. The application of a corpus-based method is also a conformation to the widespread application of computational analysis. It is therefore a solid motivation to carry on with this research in order to explore in depth the above issues and provide additional knowledge in the fields aforementioned.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

In the previous chapter, I have presented the previous literature found in these areas of linguistics study - metaphor (see 2.1), corpus-based methodology (see 2.2) and simplified text (see 2.3). One important finding from the literature review states that the identification of semantic domains in semantic annotation tools can be a guide in extracting metaphors from a text (see 2.2.2). This is because the annotation software could allocate semantic tags to words in a corpus which correspond to “*the source and target domains of metaphorically used types*” (Koller et al. 2008).

In this chapter, I will discuss the research methodology which is designed to answer the research questions stated previously in Chapter 1 (see 1.3). To answer the first research question ‘*How can corpus-based methodology be applied for analysis in metaphor studies?*’ this study employs the corpus linguistics software Wmatrix (see 2.2.2) which is used to extract semantic domains which will be followed by identification of linguistic metaphorical expressions. To answer the second and third research questions ‘*How are metaphors changed and adapted in the process of simplification?*’ and ‘*What are the implications of these changes?*’, this study uses the framework of analysing the patterns of change in metaphors in literary text during the text simplification process following the framework suggested by Deignan, Littlemore and Semino (2013).

3.1 Data collection

The data in this study is the original and simplified version of the novel *Around the World in 80 Days* (henceforth, ATW80D) by Jules Verne. The “original” novel in this study denotes the translated version of the French novel by George Makepeace Towle in 1873, while the “simplified” version represents the edition used in secondary schools in Malaysia as part of the content of the English Literary Component for Form 3 students. The rationale for choosing these two texts is discussed in the next two sections.

3.1.1 Original version

It was in 1873 that the first edition of the classic novel ATW80D written in French, *Le tour du monde en quatre-vingts jours* was published. It is one of the novels in the series collectively known as *Voyages Extraordinaire*, containing 54 novels published by Jules Verne between 1863 and 1905. Although ATW80D was quick to gain attention, it is observed that the novel denotes a different route taken by the writer when he decided that it would not contain as many scientific elements as compared to other novels in the series (*Journey to the Centre of the Earth*, *Twenty Thousand Leagues Under The Sea*, et cetera) and therefore resembles closely a memoir instead. Jules Verne’s ATW80D was his most successful novel, and it is also the only novel by the writer that circles largely on the ideas of space and time which contribute to the novel’s plot and theme (Verne & Butcher, 1995).

In this study, the “original” version of the novel refers to the English translated version, the Classic Library’s Complete and Unabridged hardback edition published by Wilco Publications (2003). Butcher & Evans (n.d.) compiled a list of as many as eleven

versions of English translations of ATW80D by 15 known authors, with the translation used in this study by George Makepeace Towle (1873) being reprinted by more than 15 different publishers such as Penguin Popular Classics, Bantam, Thames and Reader's Digest. Interestingly, the reprinted version by Wilco Publications is not listed in the website, indicating perhaps there are more out there which have been missed by Butcher and Evans. Moreover, as evident by the year of publication, the George Makepeace Towle's translation was published very closely to the year of the novel's original French version, indicating that it is the first available translation of the text from French to English. Another motivation for using this version is that the original and simplified versions are separated by 125 years. Two different texts separated by more than one hundred years of publication would give a lot of valuable insights regarding the different linguistic values of the texts and the re-writing of the text for a different audience.

3.1.2 Simplified version

In this study, the simplified version used is written by a non-Malaysian writer, Deanna McFadden (2007). This version of the simplified novel was originally intended for general readers of English who wanted to have a basic understanding of the story without going through the lengthy original novel. It is also probably for the use of advanced readers who are not speakers of English as a first language. Simplified texts can provide the gist of a story without going through lengthy sentences and difficult words, and thus could contribute to a reader's interest in reading the original text. In a condensed version, the simplified text could also shorten the time needed to comprehend the storyline.

In 2011, this simplified version was adopted into the Malaysian secondary school curriculum, republished by Rentak Semasa. Students in Form 3 are expected to make the simplified version a reference for the novel section in the KBSM Literary Component. As simplified reading material, the text has been subjected to many reductions, one which includes the loss of figurative uses of language such as allusions, idioms and metaphors apart from shortened length and restricted vocabulary (Vincent, 1986 p.211 cited in Hirvela 1988 p.132). This has sparked an interest in analysing the effects of simplification on the use of metaphors, hence the basis to choose the particular simplified text for this study.

3.1.3 Preparation of machine-readable texts

Both original and simplified texts are scanned into a Portable Document File (.pdf) and then converted into machine-readable forms of Microsoft Word (.docx) and Plain Text (.txt). The text in .docx form is prepared for use in Microsoft Word with the availability of the spellchecker when editing spellings and punctuations. The electronic forms are inspected to avoid missing punctuation and double-checked for spelling errors by referring to the printed versions of both original and simplified novels, i.e. Wilco Publication's for the original and Form 3 Literary Component Textbook for the simplified text.

Plain text documents are prepared according to the requirement of the Wmatrix software which can only accept and process documents in the form of Plain Text, as stated in the format guidelines. The corpus size for the two texts is:

Table 3.1

Corpus size

Text	Tokens
Original	58822
Simplified	17437

It was found that the length of the simplified version is 70.5% less compared to the original text. Therefore, it can be said that the original text has been shrunk to one-third of its size in order to accommodate the simplified text. The number of words and sentences has been reduced according to the levels of the readers, which is a normal practice among text writers or editors during the process of simplification (Goodman and Freeman, 1993; Claridge, 2012).

3.2 Tools

In investigating a corpus, dedicated corpus tools are used according to the objective of language analysis. A good corpus tool should have these basic abilities – display search results for a specific target language item, the frequency count of the language item and examples of the target item or the concordance views (see 3.2.4) so further investigation on the language item could be performed (Hunston, 2006). In figurative language studies, features such as key word and frequency list are able to assist the investigation on the use of metaphors (Izwaini, 2003). In the present study, the web-based corpus tool Wmatrix is used as not only can it perform all the features stated above, but it also provides other features which are discussed in the next section.

3.2.1 Wmatrix

Wmatrix (Rayson, 2008), a web-based software initiated at the University Centre for Computer Corpus Research on Language in Lancaster University (UK) (UCREL) has a simple, user-friendly interface. It allows researchers to use UCREL annotated corpora and retrieval tools. It is equipped with several corpus tools with different purposes such as grammatical categories tagging, or part-of-speech tagging (CLAWS), semantic domains (USAS) frequency lists and concordances generator. CLAWS is the acronym for Constituent Likelihood Automatic Word-tagging System (CLAWS) and USAS represents UCREL Semantic Annotation System (USAS). Further use of CLAWS in this study will be detailed in section 3.2.3.

Various web browsers such as Chrome, Firefox or Internet Explorer can run Wmatrix regardless of their operating systems - Mac, Windows, Linux and Unix. Any user with a stable Internet connection with any kind of computer that can run the web browsers will have access to Wmatrix, granted, with a purchased licence from the principal developer, Paul Rayson. However, a one-month free trial access is given to researchers who apply through their respective learning institutions or thesis/course supervisors. Although it was not initially intended for corpus linguistics studies and was in fact for another project called REVERE, with the original aim to investigate information extraction from documents in the field of software engineering, the software bundle is a valuable discovery for corpus linguistics studies and thus has garnered interest among researchers in the field.

When a user inputs a raw text (a linear text in the form of Plain Text, .txt), it is uploaded to the server through the web browser being used. The computer screen will flash

several times indicating that the analysis is in process. A user has to wait for the text to go through several stages before the result of the text analysis can be viewed. It begins with the first layer, the grammatical tag CLAWS, and then continued by USAS, the semantic tagger. CLAWS assigns each word with a part of speech tag with 96-97% accuracy while USAS defines each word with a semantic field tag with 92% accuracy (Rayson, 2008).

The results of the corpus annotation and retrieval tool are laid out in sections with POS and semantic tag frequency lists. A user may download the data which can be used offline but it is also viewable through the browser, but only when the computer is connected to the Internet. Wmatrix guides users to detect noticeable patterns or features of the text analysed through frequency list comparison between the user's corpus to "*standard textual norms*" (Rayson, 2008), i.e. standard usage as found in the British National Corpus. Wmatrix can handle corpora size up to several million words; however, the retrieval process would be slower. Therefore, users are recommended to keep their corpus size below 1 million words.

3.2.2 USAS tagger

The semantic annotation tool is one of the features in the Wmatrix program, along with frequency lists, concordances and keyness indicators for words, parts of speech and semantic domains generally intended for quantitative text analysis. The semantic domain tagger enables potential metaphorical expressions to be extracted from the text. Based loosely on the Longman Lexicon of Contemporary English (McArthur 1981), Wmatrix identifies 21 main semantic domains (Table 3.2) and over 200 secondary divisions.

Table 3.2

Main semantic domains in USAS

A general and abstract terms	B the body and the individual	C arts and crafts	E emotion
F food and farming	G government and public	H architecture, housing and the home	I money and commerce in industry
K entertainment, sports and games	L life and living things	M movement, location, travel and transport	N numbers and measurement
O substances, materials, objects and equipment	P education	Q language and communication	S social actions, states and processes
T time	W world and environment	X psychological actions, states and processes	Y science and technology
Z names and grammar			

The example of the Time domain is as follows:

T1	Time
T1.3	Time: Period
T1.1.2	Time: Present, simultaneous
T4	Time: Early/late
T1.2	Time: Momentary
T2-	Time: Ending
T4++	Time: Early

According to the USAS guide, the semantic fields classify word senses which connect to each other due to their similarity and generality within a “mental concept”. The group

includes synonyms, antonyms, hypernyms and hyponyms. USAS can classify types both at word level and for multi-word expressions.

Let us take an example from the semantic domain tag T1.1.2 (Time: Present, simultaneous). It is a derivation from Time 1.1 (Time: General). It is used to tag a type with terms relating to a present (period/point) in time. Examples of types which might be included in this tag are (the examples in the USAS guide are written in capital letters, this study adheres to the guideline): AGO, BACKDATED, EDWARDIAN, FOREGONE, HERITAGE, HITHERTO, ORIGINALLY, THEN, et cetera. Examples of multi-word expressions are AGES AGO, A MOMENT AGO, GOES BACK A FEW YEARS, IN THE PAST, NOT SO LONG AGO.

In building the semantic profile for each word, USAS lists down all possible tags related to the type, and it uses a hybrid perspective (Koller et al., 2008) in order to arrange the sequence of tags. In the disambiguation process, the system combines ranks of general likelihood (obtained from corpus and dictionary), part-of-speech disambiguation, the presence of multiword expressions and topic information. The result of the order of tags is set to choose the first tag in the sequence as the one with the highest chance in that particular context. This means that even if a word has 5 different tags assigned to it, only the first tag is selected to be the tag displayed as the semantic category of that particular word.

After the assignation of semantic field or domain tag to each word in the user corpus, the next stage is the key semantic domain analysis. The comparison between the user corpus with the reference corpus is performed to ensure the keyness of the semantic tag through statistical significance. Log likelihood is used to measure the statistical

significance with a threshold value of 6.63 for $p < 0.01$. However, in this study, even though there are a lot of time semantic domains with log likelihood (LL) values which were significantly below the statistical level, instances of metaphorical linguistic expressions are found to be abundant in those semantic domain of time with low LL values (see Figure 4.1).

In Wmatrix, the reference corpora are smaller sets of corpora taken from the British National Corpus (100 million words) and other reference corpora which can be uploaded to examine language in a particular discourse. The selection of reference corpus depends on the intent of the study. Since the texts analysed in this study are literary texts, therefore the reference corpus selected from Wmatrix is the BNC Sampler Imaginative Writing Section which contains writing samples of drama, poetry and prose fiction of 222,541 words. In short, the selection of reference corpora must take into consideration the genre of texts in the user corpora.

As with previous studies which have used Wmatrix (Koller et al., 2008, Deignan, Littlemore & Semino, 2013), the rationale of employing Wmatrix relies upon the prediction that the semantic domains which are assigned also act as indicators of the source domains of the metaphoric expressions. For example, Koller et al. (2008) find in their studies that the use of Wmatrix has proven their hypothesis where semantic tags assigned by USAS to the words in the texts are consistent with the source and target domains in linguistic metaphorical expressions. It also confirms that semantic annotation of texts is capable of yielding more extensive findings compared to the more tedious work of manual semantic domain extraction.

Analysis of literary texts using corpus-based methods is increasingly popular with the development in corpus linguistics tools. McIntyre and Walker (2010) demonstrate in their study how Wmatrix can be applied in stylistic analysis of texts of different genres i.e. poetry and drama. In the study, they analyse two sets of different data; lyrical poems in William Blake's *Songs of Innocence and Songs of Experience*, and a set of 200,000 words from Hollywood film scripts. The two volumes of William Blake's poems are bound together and complement each other hence must be read as a whole (Bowra, 1970 cited in McIntyre and Walker, 2010). The authors attempted to find empirical evidence on the similarities and differences of the two volumes that might be the reason why Bowra suggests that the poems should be read together. It was found that corpus stylistic analysis provides a great help in validating several subjective critical responses to the poems. Regarding the movie scripts, results indicate that the method enables analysis that would otherwise be impossible with traditional manual analysis. The results also confirm certain claims about the roles of gender in the blockbuster movie scripts where indeed there are male speech domination and gendered roles, among others.

Maiwald (2011) describes his corpus stylistic analysis of George MacDonald's fiction. Apart from the findings regarding the style of writing in the collection of novels and short stories, the writer also includes his analysis on the grammatical and semantic properties of the words used in George MacDonald's fiction. Wmatrix was used to analyse a sub-section of the 4.5 million-word corpus of novels and short stories. Although the sub-section is only a small part of the study, which acts as future recommendation to its larger potential in studying literary texts, it provides additional knowledge on the 'characterization' of William Blake's writings. It also provides a

comprehensive description of a word for example ‘things’ which is assigned five tags, making sure that all meanings associated with a particular word are not overlooked.

3.2.3 POS tagger CLAWS7

As mentioned in section 2.2.1, Wmatrix enables access to several corpus annotation systems. Other than USAS, this study also utilizes the parts of speech tagger, CLAWS. POS tagging is the process of assigning each word in a text with a grammatical or morpho-syntactic tag (McEnery, Xiao and Tono, 2006). The CLAWS tagging system was developed for tagging words in the British National Corpus. Its most updated version, CLAWS7 was introduced in 2012 in accordance with keeping up with the latest evolution in computer-based language analysis. The POS tagging system of CLAWS7 is similar to the POS tagging used in the Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA), Corpus of Historical English (COHA), TIME Magazine Corpus of American English (TIME), and Corpus of American Soap Operas (SOAP). This allows for a powerful comparison between the corpora.

3.2.4 Concordance

Concordance is defined as an alphabetical list of instances of a word or a phrase, which displays every occurrence of the search pattern in a corpus in the form of words preceding and following the said word or phrase (McEnery, Xiao and Tono, 2006; O’Keeffe, McCarthy and Carter, 2007; Semino, 2008). It features a display of the queried word or phrase positioned in the middle, with seven or eight words surrounding both the left and right side of the word or phrase. This type of display is known as Key-Word-In-Context Display (KWIC) (O’Keeffe, McCarthy and Carter).

The concordance view of words or phrases in a corpus has a lot of benefits. First, it shows the use of the queried word or phrase in the real world. For example, if a researcher would like to find out the use of a word in a particular corpus, the results displayed in concordance would allow the researcher to have a basic understanding of the word. This is supported by the second benefit, where concordance provides a view of other words surrounding the words/phrase in question, giving the contextual characteristics of the word. Finally, it would generate a list of word usage, not just providing one instance but as many as the word occurs in a text. This allows for critical analysis which provides a strong empirical evident.

3.3 Method

The study starts with a quantitative data analysis where the distribution of the semantic domains in both texts are extracted by comparing the texts with the reference corpus – the Imaginative Writing section in British National Corpus, which is available in Wmatrix (Rayson, 2008). The distribution of semantic domains produces a list of overused and underused items. The list of overused items is then analysed qualitatively for identification of metaphors. Overused items are those that appear significantly in a text compared to the reference corpus (Corpus of Imaginative Writing), indicating a strong presence of those particular words, while underused items are items that are not used as much as expected in a particular text compared to the reference corpus.

This is then followed by manual metaphor identification using the Lakoffian framework. In this framework, metaphors are identified in the form of “A IS B” (Kovecses, 2010). Since this study specifically looks at the target domain time, then it is a matter of finding all source domains related to the expression of time in the original and simplified texts. The conceptual framework is as follows:

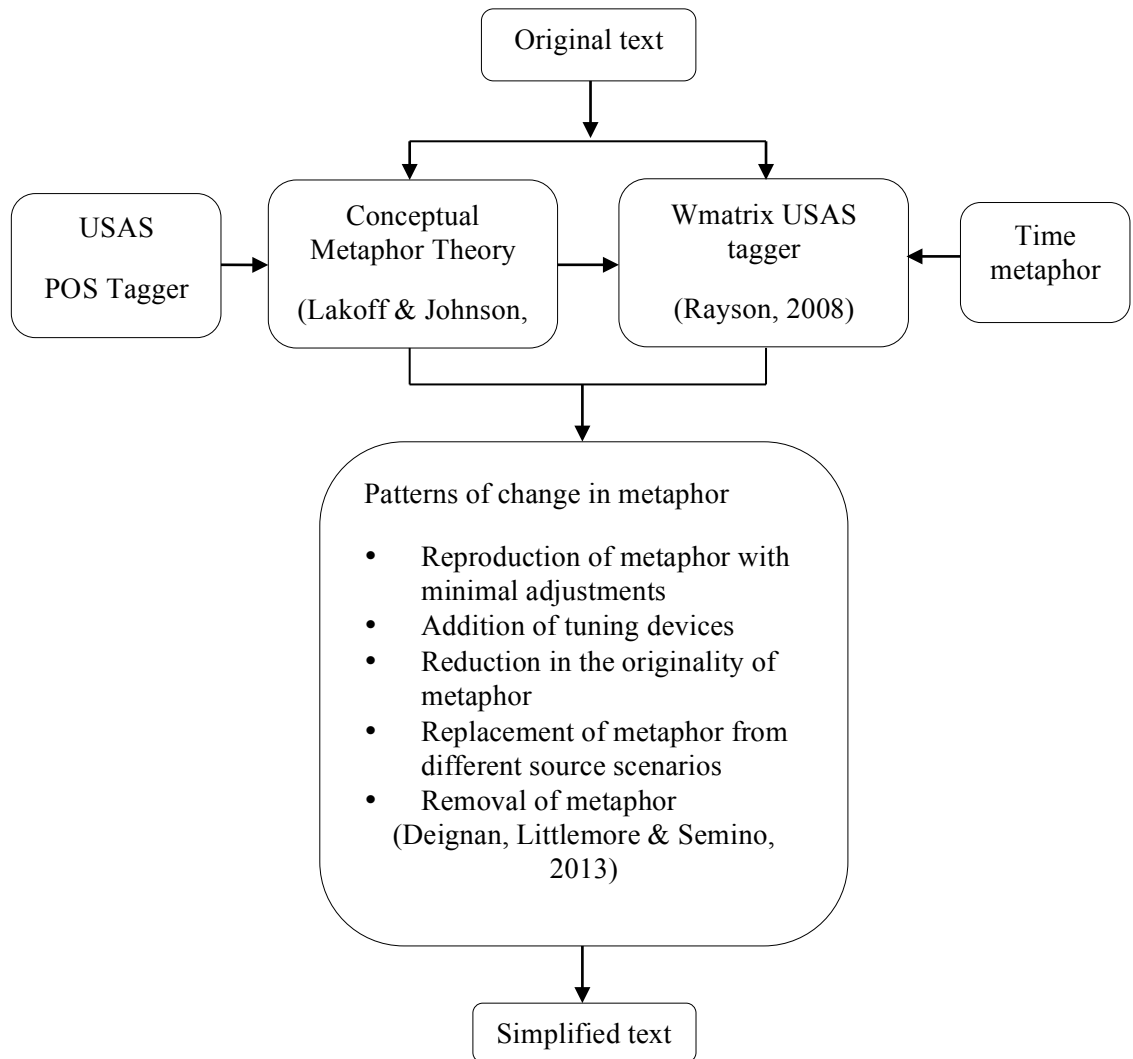


Figure 3.1: Conceptual Framework.

From the conceptual framework, I devised a step-by-step flowchart of metaphor analysis between an original text and simplified text as follows:

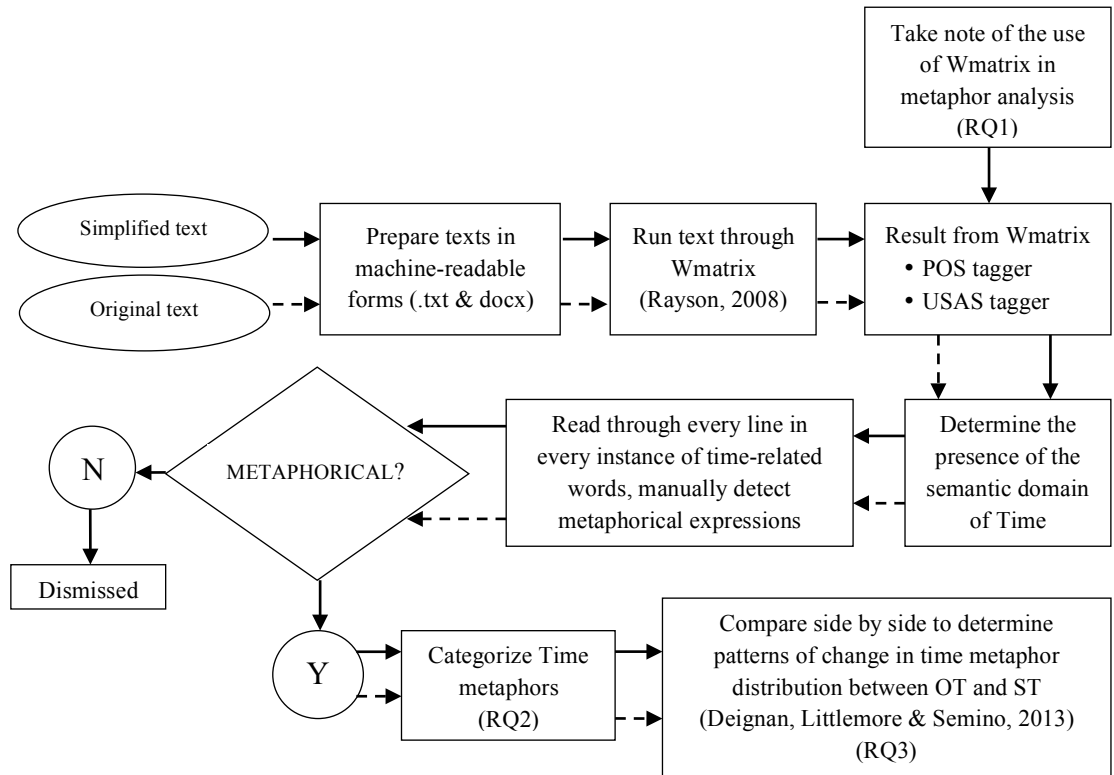


Figure 3.2: Flowchart of metaphor analysis between an original text and simplified text.

Y refers to ‘Yes’ and N refers to ‘No’.

From this flowchart, the steps taken from the beginning until the end are detailed. Note that each text goes through separate processing until all types of time-related metaphorical expressions, time metaphors and the differences between the two texts are compared side by side. In short, the steps taken to discern the patterns of changes in time metaphors from an original text to a simplified text are as follows:

Step 1: Texts are transformed into machine-readable forms (see 3.1.3). First, texts are scanned into Portable Document Format (pdf). The texts are then copied into Microsoft Word documents (.doc or .docx) in order to edit spelling and errors such as indentation or paragraphing which occur when transferring texts from pdf to docx. Next, the edited texts are transformed into Plain Text documents (.txt) to be uploaded into Wmatrix.

Step 2: Once uploaded into Wmatrix, the list of words and the frequencies of those words are derived. This is an important step because this is when the researcher makes a choice to compare the text with a reference corpus. In this study, the texts are compared with the BNC Imaginative Writing section, and this process is done separately for both texts.

Step 3: The KWIC list of most salient key semantic domains for both domains are laid out and here, Wmatrix allows for viewing of Time semantic domain only. The list of most overused and underused keywords are both available, but this study only makes use of the list of most overused keywords. A click on each time semantic domain category yields the concordance view which is useful for the next step: manual identification of metaphorical expressions.

Step 4: In this step, expressions deemed as metaphorical are extracted according to the Lakoffian (1980) framework. After extracting all of them, the categorization of each time metaphor follows.

Step 5: At this level, the metaphors in the original text are compared with the metaphors in the simplified text. This will then yield the pattern of change in metaphors when a text is simplified.

It is important to note that the texts underwent separate methods of analysis up until the comparison between the original and simplified text in order to find out the patterns of change in metaphors. This means that there is an in-depth exploration of both texts' distributions of time metaphors before the step of comparing the two texts can be executed.

3.3.1 Data analysis

The data is analysed using the framework proposed by Deignan, Littlemore & Semino (2013). In their studies, the texts analysed were the original and simplified versions of the Shakespearean play, 'Romeo and Juliet'. The prominent change in patterns of use of metaphors is noted and then compared based on the types of alteration as stated below, with examples taken from Deignan, Littlemore and Semino (2013):

3.3.1.1 Reproduction with minimal adjustments

In Table 3.3, metaphors are reproduced when they are important aspects of a story, hence even if the text is simplified, certain figurative use of language are retained. This is done to ensure the original message is delivered.

Table 3.3

Reproduction with minimal adjustments

Original	Simplified	Implication
<i>It is too rash, too unadvised, too sudden, Too like the lightning, which doth <u>cease to be</u> Ere one can <u>say</u> 'It <u>lightens</u>'.</i>	<i>It is too rash. Too ill-advised. Too sudden. Too like <u>lightning</u>, which is over before one can <u>say</u> 'It <u>lightens</u>'.</i>	The simile plays an important part in conveying the strength of Juliet's feelings, thus it is preserved in the simplified version.

3.3.1.2 Addition of tuning devices

Tuning devices are added in instances where the intended message is made clearer with the addition of devices such as the example in Table 3.4:

Table 3.4

Addition of tuning devices

Original	Simplified	Implication
<i>My lips, two <u>blushing</u> <u>pilgrims</u>, ready <u>stand</u></i>	<i>my lips, like two <u>blushing</u> <u>pilgrims</u>, are ready</i>	In this example, like is used in the simplified version to introduce a noun phrase which, in the original, simply acts in apposition to the topic of the metaphor.

3.3.1.3 Reduction in the originality of metaphor

Some metaphors are adapted into simplified version of the text, however, the degree of intensity of the metaphor is reduced to aid understanding of readers of the modified text.

Table 3.5 shows the example:

Table 3.5

Reduction in the originality of metaphor

Original	Simplified	Implication
<i>O, tell me, Friar, tell me. <u>In</u> what vile <u>part</u> of this anatomy Doth my name <u>lodge</u>? Tell me that I may <u>sack</u> The hateful <u>mansion</u>!</i>	<i>Oh, tell me Friar, tell me, <u>in</u> what vile <u>part</u> of my body does my name <u>lie</u>? Tell me, so that I can <u>attack</u> the hated <u>place</u>!</i>	Romeo still metaphorically describes his body as a space within which his name occupies a particular position, but this space is no longer specified as a house, or even necessarily as a building.

3.3.1.4 Replacement of metaphors from different source scenarios

Another way of changing the distribution of figurative language when preparing a text for a different set of audience is to replace metaphors with other metaphors that use difference source scenarios. For example, in Table 3.6, we can see that a modern phrase

replaces the archaic ones, making the text more relevant to the readers of simplified text.

Table 3.6

Replacement of metaphors from different source scenarios

Original	Simplified	Implication
<i>But first let me tell ye, if ye should <u>lead her in a fool's paradise</u>, as they say</i>	<i>First, let me tell you that if you <u>lead her up the garden path</u>, as they say</i>	The choice of the idiomatic expression leading up the garden path in the simplified version evokes a different source scenario, but similarly suggests deception, and is likely to be familiar to modern readers, as the original metaphor use of 'fool's paradise' no longer has a negative connotation in present day.

3.3.1.5 Removal of metaphors

Finally, the last type of changes in distribution of metaphors is when a metaphor is removed from the text, and more direct statement replaces the figurative use of language. An example is in Table 3.7 as follows:

Table 3.7

Removal of metaphors

Original	Simplified	Implication
<i>Let two more <u>summers wither in their pride</u> Ere we may think her <u>ripe</u> to be a bride</i>	<i>Let's think about marriage <u>in a couple of years</u>.</i>	The non-metaphorical paraphrase in the simplified version is very explicit, and would possibly help readers to understand the metaphors in the original.

In the final step, the interaction of these change in patterns are extracted and further explained in detail. A comparison between metaphors in the simplified text that have been retained, removed or replaced will be made against the original text.

3.4 Summary

In this chapter, I have discussed the research design, the corpus linguistics software used in this study, the data chosen and the framework of analysis of this study. In the next chapter, I will present the findings which consist of semantic domains drawn from Wmatrix, the metaphors identified from the semantic domains, and the changes that have been made in the distribution of time metaphor from the original text to the simplified text.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS

In the previous chapter, I have described the methodology employed in this study where I organized the discussion into corpus linguistics methodology, the corpus used and the conceptual framework (see 3.1, 3.2, 3.3). In this chapter, I will present the findings collected through the processing of the data by Wmatrix followed by the manual identification of metaphors and comparison of time metaphor distribution in an original novel and its simplified version. The analysis will be structured in accordance with the research questions posed in the beginning of this study (see 1.3). The first research question covers the role of corpus methodology in metaphor research. The second research question lists and classifies the distribution of time metaphors in the texts. The third research question delineates the patterns of change of metaphors when a text is simplified.

4.1 Application of corpus-based methodology for analysis in metaphor studies

Corpus-based methodology is used in many varieties of language studies, including studies concerning the distribution of metaphors across various text genres (Charteris-Black, 2004). Apart from the ability to process large amounts of data, other features such as keyword analysis and concordance viewer allow for a systematic analysis of data which could be applied according to the researcher's objectives. In this study, features in Wmatrix such as the semantic domain tagger and POS (parts of speech) tagger, among others are used to retrieve metaphorical expressions from the text.

4.1.1 USAS tagger

One of the key elements in the USAS tagger is its ability to fetch salient key features of a text when compared with a reference corpus related to the genre of the text being analysed. The reference corpus used to compare the original and simplified texts is the BNC Imaginative Writing (see 2.2). The results of the comparison between the reference corpus and the original text (henceforth OT) are as in Table 4.1:

Table 4.1

Top 20 key domains in OT

Rank	Item	O1	%1	O2	%2		LL	Tagset
1	Z2	1065	1.81	1233	0.55	+	738.68	Geographical names
2	M4	351	0.60	165	0.07	+	529.37	Sailing, swimming, etc.
3	Z5	18875	32.09	60412	27.15	+	390.46	Grammatical bin
4	M3	554	0.94	690	0.31	+	348.17	Vehicles transport on land
5	A12-	232	0.39	161	0.07	+	269.82	Difficult
6	N1	797	1.35	1435	0.64	+	258.66	Numbers
7	Z99	1513	2.57	3788	1.70	+	172.94	Unmatched
8	M1	1485	2.52	3756	1.69	+	162.12	Moving, coming and going
9	W3	356	0.61	546	0.25	+	160.37	Geographical terms
10	A13	50	0.09	0	0.00	+	156.51	Degree
11	M6	1048	1.78	2685	1.21	+	107.77	Location and direction
12	N3.3	91	0.15	63	0.03	+	106.03	Measurement: Distance
13	W2	32	0.05	0	0.00	+	100.17	Light
14	X9.2-	84	0.14	58	0.03	+	98.08	Failure
15	G2.1	223	0.38	350	0.16	+	96.26	Law and order
16	S9	291	0.49	552	0.25	+	83.34	Religion and the supernatural
17	G1.1	152	0.26	212	0.10	+	80.57	Government
18	T1.2	161	0.27	237	0.11	+	78.00	Time: Momentary
19	T1.3	587	1.00	1424	0.64	+	76.77	Time: Period
20	A1.7+	104	0.18	132	0.06	+	63.63	Constraint

The most salient key semantic domain in OT is *Geographical names*. This is befitting, as ATW80D is an adventurous fictional journey to circle the globe within 80 days.

Hence, it is expected to see words related to geographical names on top of the list. Other prominent key semantic domains are *Sailing, swimming, etc.* which represents the numerous journeys by sea, *Vehicles transport on land*, and *Difficult* which portray the hardships faced by the voyagers in foreign lands and *Numbers* as evident in the counting of the days travelled by the protagonist, Phileas Fogg. The key semantic domain *Sailing, swimming, etc.* is more prominent than *Vehicles transport on land*, signifying that the journey involves more sea transportation than land transportation. The tagset Grammatical Bin (ranked 3rd) gathers words which could not be semantically tagged i.e. words that do not have a lexical meaning. This group of words consists of *prepositions, adverbs, conjunctions* and other grammatical or function words. The words are tagged according to their part-of-speech properties at the initial stage of Wmatrix, and in the second stage, the USAS tagger only tags words with lexical meaning.

This study focuses only on the key semantic domain of Time. It was found that the semantic domain of Time is indeed in the top 20 list. Ranked at the 18th and 19th place, the data obtained from Wmatrix suggests that time is one of the top 20 most discussed concepts in the novel, highlighting its importance in the narration of the story.

With 92% accuracy, it is expected to find irregularities in the tagging system. This is evident in the 7th most salient semantic domain in OT, Z99. This represents the unmatched words found in the text. Although this situation can be modified where the users can generate their own lexicon and use it in their own corpus, it would take a lot of time and potentially raise the issue of bias against USAS tagging (Potts & Baker, 2012). Inspection of these unmatched words reveals that none of them are related to the concept of time and hence, the creation of a specialized lexicon to tackle this issue was

not performed. Wmatrix allows many practical user-friendly views of its results, and with this option, the distribution of the time semantic domain can be viewed as in Table 4.2, where this option can show all semantic domains of time regardless of its LL values:

Table 4.2

Distribution of time key domains in OT

No.	Tag	Item	O1	%1	O2	%2	LL	Tagset
1	T1.2	161	0.27	237	0.11	+	78.00	Time: Momentary
2	T1.3	587	1.00	1424	0.64	+	76.77	Time: Period
3	T1.1	21	0.04	4	0.00	+	45.63	Time: General
4	T2+	171	0.29	387	0.17	+	29.09	Time: Beginning
5	T4-	55	0.09	80	0.04	+	27.20	Time: Late
6	T2++	202	0.34	520	0.23	+	20.31	Time: Beginning
7	T1	218	0.37	672	0.30	+	6.66	Time
8	T4++	2	0.00	0	0.00	+	6.26	Time: Early
9	T3	45	0.08	128	0.06	+	2.58	Time: Old, new and young; age
10	T4	4	0.01	5	0.00	+	2.50	Time: Early/late
11	T1.3++	6	0.01	13	0.01	+	1.18	Time period: long
12	T3+++	3	0.01	10	0.00	+	0.04	Time: Old; grown-up
13	T4+	13	0.02	47	0.02	+	0.02	Time: Early
14	T2+++	8	0.01	29	0.01	+	0.01	Time: Beginning
15	T3+	22	0.04	300	0.13	-	49.05	Time:
16	T3-	74	0.13	598	0.27	-	46.09	Time: New and young
17	T1.3+	29	0.05	255	0.11	-	23.12	Time period: long
18	T3--	2	0.00	61	0.03	-	17.14	Time: New and young
19	T1.1.1	60	0.10	359	0.16	-	12.02	Time: Past
20	T1.1.3	306	0.52	1411	0.63	-	10.27	Time: Future
21	T4--	13	0.02	109	0.05	-	9.04	Time: Late
22	T2	0	0.00	8	0.00	-	3.75	Time: Beginning and ending
23	T1.3+++	0	0.00	8	0.00	-	3.75	Time period: long
24	T3---	3	0.01	26	0.01	-	2.30	Time: New and young
25	T3++	13	0.02	70	0.03	-	1.48	Time: Old; grown-up
26	T1.3-	15	0.03	77	0.03	-	1.25	Time period: short
27	T1.1.2	214	0.36	865	0.39	-	0.76	Time: Present; simultaneous
28	T2-	141	0.24	545	0.24	-	0.05	Time: Ending

The time domains with a positive (+) sign are the ones highlighted in this study. The negative sign (-) signifies the tagset containing words which are underused in the OT as compared with the reference corpus. Since this study looks at the most salient key domains of time, hence the analysis will not include the tagset with a negative sign, which indicates domains that are underused. Ranked at number 7, the tagset T1 refers to the use of words related to the generic concept of time in general for example *time, full-time, sometime, timetable, o'clock* and others.

Once the key semantic domains of Time in the text were retrieved, I then proceeded to do manual identification of metaphorical expressions in the text. This was done by reading each concordance line produced by each tagset. In the table above, every tagset contains the concordance lines of each of the words tagged by the particular semantic domain. In essence, the results are presented not according to the words belonging to the semantic group but in the form of concordance lines.

The example in Table 4.2 shows the results of the most salient key semantic domain of Time in OT, T1.2 (Time: Momentary) with LL of 78.00. The highest LL means that it is the most salient key semantic domain of time in OT, which basically states that words which refer to terms relating to a momentary period or point in time stood out the most against the comparison with the sub-corpus. To put it simply, the sense of urgency using momentary/transitory time-related terms is more apparent compared to the ones found in the reference corpus BNC Imaginative Writing.

The presentation of the results in the form of concordance lines is highly accommodating. This useful feature in corpus-based methodology will be further explained in section 4.1.3. As mentioned before, the next step is identifying expressions

that are metaphorical based on references in previous studies on conceptualizations of time (Lakoff, Espenson and Schwartz, 1991; Kovecses, 2010). All words related to time are displayed in their contextual use hence the process of identifying metaphorical expressions is quick and systematic.

It was found that not all semantic domains of Time contain metaphorical expressions. Out of 14 of the most salient key semantic domains, there are 5 tagsets which do not contain any metaphorical expressions at all. They are T1.1 (General terms relating to time), T2++ (beginning and ending), T4 (early/late) and T2+++ (beginning and ending). Table 4.3 displays the amount of metaphorical expressions found in the 9 semantic domains of Time:

Table 4.3

Distribution of metaphorical expressions in semantic domains of Time in OT

No	Semantic Tagset	Semantic field	Occurrences	Metaphorical expressions	Percentage %
1	T1.3	Time: Period	587	124	21%
2	T1	Time	218	58	27%
3	T1.2	Time: Momentary	161	16	10%
4	T4+	Time: Early	13	4	31%
5	T3	Time: Old, new and young; age	45	4	9%
6	T2+	Time: Beginning	171	3	2%
7	T1.3++	Time: Period	6	3	50%
8	T4++	Time: Early	2	2	100%
9	T4-	Time: Late	55	2	4%

The highest number of metaphorical expressions was found in the tagset T1.3 (Time: Period). Out of 587 expressions of time in this particular tagset, 124 (21.1%) are used metaphorically, i.e., one in five time-related words in the tagset T1.3 is expressed figuratively. The next tagset, T1 tags general terms relating to time. One of the words

tagged in this tagset is the word time itself. There are 218 occurrences, and 58 of them are deemed metaphorical (26.6%). In other words, one in four time-related words is expressed figuratively. The tagset T1.2 has 161 occurrences of time-related words and 10% of them are identified as linguistic metaphorical expressions. One out of ten of the words are used in a non-literal manner. The tagset T1.2 represents the terms relating to a momentary/transitory (period/point in) time.

This is followed by the tagset T4+ which signifies the state of being early or late. A plus sign (+) represents the state of being early, minus for being late (-) and a T4 tagset without any plus or minus sign indicates the state of being punctual (e.g. on time, etc.). Out of 13 occurrences, 4 of them (31%) are used metaphorically or one in three is found in the instances of linguistic metaphorical expressions. Following T4+ is T2+ which refers to terms related to the beginning and ending of time, with the plus sign (+) referring to beginning and minus (-) for ending. There are only 3 out 171 (1.8%) occurrences deemed to be metaphorical. T3 is next with also 3 out of 6 instances figuratively expressed and accounting for 50% of all the occurrences of T3.

The rest are T4++ and T4- with 2 instances of metaphorical linguistic expressions each. There are only two occurrences in T4++ making it 100% used metaphorically and there are 55 instances in T4- but non-literal use only represents 3.6% out of all occurrences of time-related words in T4-. There is a significant number of time metaphorical expressions in the tagsets above. After finding these expressions, the next step was to categorize them according to respective conceptual metaphors which was then used as a reference to be compared with metaphorical expressions in the simplified text (henceforth ST). This will be explained in the second research question (4.2).

Table 4.4

Top 20 key domains in ST

Rank	Item	O1	%1	O2	%2		LL	Tagset
1	Z99	744	4.27	3788	1.70	+	425.77	Unmatched
2	A12-	132	0.76	161	0.07	+	313.18	Difficult
3	M4	128	0.73	165	0.07	+	294.61	Sailing, swimming, etc.
4	M3	198	1.14	690	0.31	+	199.97	Vehicles and transport on land
5	M1	562	3.22	3756	1.69	+	174.41	Moving, coming and going
6	Z2	244	1.40	1233	0.55	+	141.58	Geographical names
7	M6	370	2.12	2685	1.21	+	89.91	Location and direction
8	G2.1-	64	0.37	187	0.08	+	78.82	Crime
9	G2.1	84	0.48	350	0.16	+	66.82	Law and order
10	T1.3	208	1.19	1424	0.64	+	60.32	Time: Period
11	A13	11	0.06	0	0.00	+	57.68	Degree
12	S2.2	144	0.83	905	0.41	+	52.50	People: Male
13	I1	64	0.37	272	0.12	+	49.44	Money generally
14	N1	197	1.13	1435	0.64	+	47.29	Numbers
15	S7.1-	34	0.19	95	0.04	+	43.82	No power
16	W2-	8	0.05	0	0.00	+	41.95	Darkness
17	N3.8+	86	0.49	478	0.21	+	41.45	Speed: Fast
18	W2	7	0.04	0	0.00	+	36.71	Light
19	W1	41	0.24	214	0.10	+	22.39	The universe
20	X9.2-	19	0.11	58	0.03	+	22.34	Failure

Moving on to the next step, the ST underwent similar processing to that carried out on OT. The results retrieved from Wmatrix were used to make comparisons between the metaphorical expressions in ST and OT. Next, I sought to answer the second research question after identifying metaphors in ST. Similar to OT, the underused key semantic domains of Time are not explained in detail. Table 4.4 shows the results of the top 20 key domains in ST. Table 4.4 shows that the highest key domain in ST is Z99 which contains all unmatched words. However, there are no time-related items in the list; therefore, it is reasonably safe to leave it unedited for a new lexical set for re-tagging purposes.

The highest four semantic domains (not including Unmatched Z99) in ST are similar to the ones in OT, albeit in a different order. The highest after the unmatched tags are the

key semantic domains *Difficult, Sailing, Swimming, etc., Vehicles and transport on land, and Geographical names*. Another key semantic domain in ST is *Moving, coming and going* which is not listed as high a key domain as in OT. This signifies that there are considerably more words related to movement compared with OT.

Table 4.5

Distribution of time key domains in ST

No.	Tag	Item	O1	%1	O2	%2	LL	Tagset
1	T1.3	208	1.19	1424	0.64	+	60.32	Time: Period
2	T1.1.3	155	0.89	1411	0.63	+	14.57	Time: Future
3	T4	5	0.03	5	0.00	+	13.11	Time: Early/late
4	T1.2	35	0.20	237	0.11	+	10.47	Time: Momentary
5	T2-	66	0.38	545	0.24	+	9.97	Time: Ending
6	T4++	1	0.01	0	0.00	+	5.24	Time: Early
7	T1.1	2	0.01	4	0.00	+	3.45	Time: General
8	T4-	11	0.06	80	0.04	+	2.65	Time: Late
9	T2+	39	0.22	387	0.17	+	2.10	Time: Beginning
10	T3	15	0.09	128	0.06	+	1.96	Time: Old, new and young; age
11	T4+	6	0.03	47	0.02	+	1.12	Time: Early
12	T1	59	0.34	672	0.30	+	0.68	Time
13	T2++	46	0.26	520	0.23	+	0.60	Time: Beginning
14	T1.1.2	68	0.39	865	0.39	+	0.00	Time: Present; simultaneous
15	T3+	1	0.01	300	0.13	-	37.09	Time: Old; grown-up
16	T3-	23	0.13	598	0.27	-	14.09	Time: New and young
17	T1.3+	10	0.06	255	0.11	-	5.75	Time period: long
18	T3++	1	0.01	70	0.03	-	5.29	Time: Old; grown-up
19	T3--	1	0.01	61	0.03	-	4.21	Time: New and young
20	T4--	6	0.03	109	0.05	-	0.79	Time: Late
21	T3---	1	0.01	26	0.01	-	0.61	Time: New and young
22	T1.3-	5	0.03	77	0.03	-	0.18	Time period: short
23	T1.1.1	27	0.15	359	0.16	-	0.04	Time: Past

The next step was to discern expressions that are used differently compared to their literal meaning. Table 4.5 shows the key semantic domains of time in ST. The most salient key semantic domain of time in ST is T1.3 (Time: Period) containing terms related to a specific period of time. Out of 14, 7 tagsets do not contain any metaphorical expressions. They are T1.1.3 (General: Future), T4 (early/late), T2- (ending), T1.1

(Time: General), T4+ (Early) and T2++ (beginning). The rest of the tagsets are in Table 4.6:

Table 4.6

Distribution of metaphorical expressions in semantic domains of Time in ST

No.	Tagset	Semantic field	Occurrences	Metaphorical expressions	Percentage %
1	T1.3	Time: Period	208	44	21%
2	T1	Time	59	18	31%
3	T1.2	Time: Momentary	35	5	14%
4	T1.1.2	Time: General: Present; simultaneous	68	5	7%
5	T3	Time: Old, new and young; age	15	1	7%
6	T4++	Time: Early	1	1	100%
7	T2+	Time: Beginning	39	1	3%

Although it is suggested that the cut-off point of analysis for USAS is 6.63 (with accuracy 99%), it was found that even at the lower end of the list, there are instances of metaphorical expressions. For example, the tagset Time (T1), with LL 0.68 suggests that the distribution of the time domain T1 is almost similar to that of the reference corpus (BNC Written Imaginative Subset Corpus). Since the objective of this study is to find all instances of metaphorical expressions tagged under the key semantic domain of time, the analysis considers even the ones at the lower end of the list. Below are the concordance lines generated from the tagset:

[Tagging > Tag Wizard... | My Tag Wizard... | Domain Tag Wizard... | Load file without tagging...]

[Folders > My folders | Details | Create... | Delete... | Archive... | Extract... | Join... | Share... | Empty TRASH]

[Options > Switch to Simple Interface | Edit user options...]

[Help > Contents | Availability | Tagsets: POS & Semantic | USAS: Lexicon & MWEs & Context rules | Updates | Feedback]

[You are here > My folders > SIMPLIFIED] [File details](#) | [Summary sheet](#)**Export concordance**

with tabs between keyword and left/right context (right mouse click on the link and save as a text file)

Note: this only saves the latest concordance - if you open a new window and run another concordance, then that one will be exported.

Change character width:80

59 occurrences.			Extend context	
Passepartout , " he said . " What	time	is it ? " Phileas asked . Passepart	1	More Full
Passepartout pulled out his pocket	watch	and looked at it carefully . " Twen	2	More Full
er eleven , sir , he said . " Your	watch	is slow , " Phileas replied . " Par	3	More Full
, but that is impossible- " " Your	watch	is four minutes too slow , " Philea	4	More Full
room . It even kept the exact same	time	. " This will do ! " Passepartout s	5	More Full
spare . " " But that 's not enough	time	to pack your trunk , sir . " Passep	6	More Full
out exclaimed . " To think , I had	never	been farther than Paris before . Th	7	More Full
quickly that all I got to see this	time	was the trip between the Northern a	8	More Full
dule - at exactly three p.m. local	time	- and started off on its journey to	9	More Full
r sightseeing , so he spent little	time	on deck . Instead , he passed his t	10	More Full
on deck . Instead , he passed his	time	much as he did at the Reform Club -	11	More Full
fact , the Mongolia made excellent	time	. It arrived two days early ! When	12	More Full
n in his diary . He also noted the	time	and the number of miles they had tr	13	More Full
hileas had asked for , he took his	time	exploring Bombay 's busy streets an	14	More Full
door as fast as he could . By the	time	he made it to the railway station ,	15	More Full
o travel the world in such a short	time	. In fact , he thought Phileas was	16	More Full

Figure 4.1: Concordance lines from the tagset T1 (Time). It is evident that even though the tagset does not have significant LL (>6.63, 99%), there are a considerable number of metaphorical expressions in the excerpt above. Concordance lines no 6, 10, 12, 14 and 16 are instances of metaphorical linguistic expressions.

Below are the time metaphors represented by each concordance line:

(Line 6) *But that's not enough time to pack your trunk, sir.* (TIME IS A RESOURCE)

(Line 10) *...so he spent little time on deck.* (TIME IS A RESOURCE)

(Line 12) *...the Mongolia (ship) made excellent time.* (A SCHEDULE IS A MOVING OBJECT)

(Line 14) *...he took his time exploring Bombay's busy streets.* (TIME IS A RESOURCE)

(Line 16) *...to travel the world in such a short time.* (TIME PASSING IS AN OBSERVER'S MOTION OVER A LANDSCAPE)

There are 59 occurrences, and 18 out of them (31%) tagged as T1 contain instances of non-literal use of time-related words. This means, one out of three of the time-related words are used figuratively. Hence, dismissing this tagset because of its low LL would potentially dismiss a significant number of metaphorical expressions as well. The highest number of linguistic metaphorical expressions can be found in the tagset T1.3 which represents terms relating to a specific period. The words tagged in this tagset are related to the words describing a length or portion of time. This describes how particular the writer is when describing events by relating it to the time for an event to happen, begin and end. There are 44 instances of metaphorical use of time-related words in T1.3 out of 208 occurrences (21%), implying that one in five words in the tagset is figuratively expressed.

Next, the tagset T1.2 refers to the terms relating to a momentary/transitory point of time. In other words, this tagset contains expressions which mention time-related words in a brief and urgent manner. Out of 35 occurrences, five are identified as metaphorical (14%) or 0.7 in every five instances in the tagset is metaphorical.

T1.1.2 is next with 68 occurrences and 5 (7%) instances of metaphorical utterances. This tagset refers to general words related to time specifically the ones referring to something happening simultaneously. This is followed by T3 with 15 occurrences and only one used figuratively. T3 represents terms relating to maturity such as old, young, new and age. The rest two tagsets, which contain 1 metaphorical expression each, are T4++ (time: early) and T2+ (beginning). The tagset referring to being early (T4++) has

only one occurrence making the percentage 100% and T2+ has 39 occurrences with 3% of non-literal expressions in the use of time-related words.

The rank of time semantic domains in both texts is as shown in Table 4.7. There are 14 types of time semantic domains for each text. The concepts of being early and late are among the most salient, as the storyline focuses on getting to a location at the exact time or earlier, while any challenges faced might jeopardize the adventure. There are 209 types of semantic domain in OT and 126 semantic domains are found in the ST regardless of LL cut off point values.

Table 4.7

Rank of semantic domains of time in both texts

No	OT			ST		
	Rank	Tagset	Field	Rank	Tagset	Field
1	18	T1.2	Time: Momentary	10	T1.3	Time: Period
2	19	T1.3	Time: Period	25	T1.1.3	Time: Future
3	30	T1.1	Time: General	31	T4	Time: Early/late
4	40	T2+	Time: Beginning	36	T1.2	Time: Momentary
5	43	T4-	Time: Late	37	T2-	Time: Ending
6	50	T2++	Time: Beginning	53	T4++	Time: Early
7	83	T1	Time	62	T1.1	Time: General
8	86	T4++	Time: Early	66	T4-	Time: Late
9	131	T3	Time: Old, new and young; age	69	T2+	Time: Beginning
10	134	T4	Time: Early/late	73	T3	Time: Old, new and young; age
11	152	T1.3++	Time period: long	87	T4+	Time: Early
12	199	T3+++	Time: Old; grown-up	94	T1	Time
13	203	T4+	Time: Early	97	T2++	Time: Beginning
14	206	T2+++	Time: Beginning	123	T1.1.2	Time: Present; simultaneous

The presence of time semantic domains in the Top 20 list of semantic domains and the fact that there are at least 14 types of time semantic domain in both texts confirm the salience of the concept of time in the original and simplified version of the novel *Around the World in 80 Days*.

4.1.2 POS tagger CLAWS7

By using a POS tagger like CLAWS7, the process of allocating each word in the text is performed in a systematic manner. Wmatrix not only assists POS to the lexical items in the text in a standardized manner, but it also produces a set of frequency lists which can be viewed as a whole set or separated by POS. This set of frequency lists provides a user-friendly layout to locate lexical items present in any text along with the list of words under the POS category. Three roles of the POS tagger in aiding metaphor analysis are – general description of a text, source domain identification and distinguishing different linguistic forms of metaphors.

4.1.2.1 General description of a text

The original text contains 58,822 tokens, 9029 types with a type-token ratio (TTR) of 15%. In the first half of the list, the three most used POS are *noun* (13,854, 23.55%), followed by *verb* (12,057, 20.50%) and *preposition* (6787, 11.54%). The three categories make up more than half the words in the text (55.59%). The next four categories of POS are *article*, *pronoun*, *conjunction* and *adjective*. The rest of the text is made up of the *negative function not*, *interjection*, *there*, *before-clause marker*, *foreign word* and *singular letter or alphabet*.

The simplified text contains 17437 tokens, 2930 types, resulting in type-token ratio of 17%. Compared with OT, ST has a higher TTR, which suggests that it contains more ‘different’ words than OT, and fewer words repeated throughout the text.

Table 4.8

Distribution of POS in OT and ST

OT			ST		
POS	No	Percentage (%)	POS	No	Percentage (%)
NOUN	13854	23.55	VERB	4390	25.18
VERB	12057	20.50	NOUN	3794	21.76
PREPOSITION	6787	11.54	PRONOUN	2077	11.91
ARTICLE	6127	10.42	PREPOSITION	1559	8.94
PRONOUN	5220	8.87	ARTICLE	1526	8.75
CONJUNCTION	3550	6.04	ADVERB	1155	6.62
ADJECTIVE	3420	5.81	CONJUNCTION	840	4.82
ADVERB	3377	5.74	ADJECTIVE	705	4.04
DETERMINER	1713	2.91	DETERMINER	437	2.51
NUMBERS	1049	1.78	TO	349	2.00
TO	854	1.45	NUMBERS	287	1.65
NOT	548	0.93	NOT	167	0.96
INTERJECTION	143	0.24	INTERJECTION	61	0.35
THERE	83	0.14	THERE	44	0.25
BEFORE- CLAUSE MARKER	29	0.05	GERMANIC GENITIVE MARKER	40	0.23
FOREIGN WORD	7	0.01	FOREIGN WORD	3	0.02
SING LETTER@ ALPHABET	4	0.01	SINGULAR LETTER@ALPH ABET	3	0.02
			BEFORE- CLAUSE MARKER	0	0
TOTAL	58822	100	TOTAL	17437	100

In the first half of ST, the most prominent POS is *verb* with 4390 (25.18%), followed by *noun* with 3794 (21.76) and *pronoun* with 2077 (11.91%). *Verbs* and *nouns* make up almost half of the text (46.94%), a phenomenon that seems to conform to the original text, although in a different order. This is probably contributed by the higher number of *pronouns*, thus contributing to more *verbs* in ST compared to OT. The number of *adjectives* in ST is less than OT, which suggests ST contains fewer descriptive words or phrases as compared to OT. *Preposition*, *article*, *adverb* and *conjunction* take the ranks from 4th to 7th most frequent POS used in ST. The next four most frequent POS in ST are *adjective*, *determiner*, *to* and *numbers*. Finally, the rest of POS found in the text with

less than 1% of use are *not interjection, there, Germanic genitive marker, foreign word, singular letter or alphabet*. Unlike OT, there is no before-clause marker present in ST.

4.1.2.2 Identification of time-related words in the target domain

Once the metaphorical linguistic expressions were identified from analysing the concordances as yielded by USAS (see 4.1.1), the identification of target domain could begin. First, we look at the words belonging to the group of the target domain of time. In OT, the word *time* dominates the formation of metaphorical expressions in the text with 61 out of 88 occurrences used in a non-literal manner. There are 23 types of time-related words, and 21 are present in OT.

Compared to OT, *day/days* dominates the time-related words used metaphorically in ST. Hence, it can be said that the concept of time is realized slightly more in the statement of *day/days* rather than *time* in the text. There are 56 occurrences of *day/days* in ST, and almost half of them are used figuratively. *Time* follows closely behind with 24 out of 39 instances being used metaphorically, with a higher percentage of 62%. This indicates that it is used figuratively almost as much as *time* in OT based on the number of occurrences, with appearances of more than once in every two occurrences of the word *time*.

Following next in ST is *hour/hours* with only 12 instances. However, these 12 instances are 46% of 26 occurrences, indicating that at least one in every two occurrences of *hour/hours* is used metaphorically. This is succeeded by *minute/minutes*, *moment/moments*, *second/seconds* and *night/nights*. The rest of the words are

month/months, evening, week and afternoon. Table 4.9 shows the words related to time in OT and ST that are part of the metaphorical expressions found in the text:

Table 4.9

Time-related words used metaphorically in OT and ST

No	Time-related words	OT			ST		
		Freq	Time-related words used metaphorically		Freq	Time-related words used metaphorically	
			No.	%		No.	%
1	time	88	61	69.3	39	24	61.5
2	hour/hours	126	50	39.7	26	12	46.2
3	day/days	118	38	32.2	56	27	48.2
4	moment/moments	37	12	32.4	9	3	33.3
5	minute/minutes	51	11	21.6	20	4	20
6	night/nights	35	8	22.9	9	2	22.2
7	o'clock	51	3	5.9	-	-	-
8	noon	19	3	15.8	-	-	-
9	delay	26	2	7.7	-	-	-
10	watch/watches	27	2	7.4	-	-	-
11	dinner	8	1	12.5	-	-	-
12	evening	41	1	2.4	10	1	10
13	week/weeks	7	1	14.3	5	1	20
14	period	4	1	25	-	-	-
15	vacation	1	1	100	-	-	-
16	season	6	1	16.7	-	-	-
17	dusk	1	1	100	-	-	-
18	instant	16	1	6.25	-	-	-
19	month/months	6	1	16.7	2	1	50
20	1845	1	1	100	-	-	-
21	1835	1	1	100	-	-	-
22	second/seconds	-	-	-	6	2	33.3
23	afternoon	-	-	-	5	1	20

The vast varieties of time-related words found in both texts which were detected by the USAS tagger has shown how a semantic domain tagger can help to identify time-related words which otherwise might be missed by the manual semantic domain tagging process. The systematic process helps to store all words in the semantic domain of time and is available for a researcher's reference at any time through KWIC viewing. This

undoubtedly has been a major help in determining the salience of the semantic domain Time in the texts analysed.

The presence of metaphorically used time-related words signifies that there are many statements of time made in a non-literal manner. This contributes to the literary essence of the novel where there are many time-related events expressed using metaphors of time. The use of the corpus-based method enables a systematic identification of the words related to the target domain. This feature not only ensures that all time-related words are detected, but also saves time and energy were it to be executed manually.

4.1.2.3 Forms of linguistic metaphorical expressions

In metaphor studies, several parts of speech have been found to be key lexical items in metaphorical expressions. Wikberg (2008) states that corpus data is able to give insights into the difference between literal and figurative word forms. In this study, the POS tagging process not only aided the identification of figurative word forms, it also confirmed this statement by some studies and contradicted others as well.

According to Goatly (1997), the lexical items most associated with metaphors are nouns. Semino (2008) suggests that some claims that nouns dominate the formation of metaphors have been invalidated. Cameron (2003) found that verbs dominate the formation of metaphors. Shutova, Sun and Korhonen (2010) argue that both noun and verbs control the formation of metaphorical expressions while Dorst (2011) has added another point to the debate that verbs and prepositions are the most prominent lexical items found in metaphors.

In this study, it was found that both verbs and nouns dominate the formation of metaphors in OT and ST. This amount is retrieved after the identification of semantic domains above takes place. The nouns mentioned in section 4.1.2.2 which relate to the use of time-related words, and the verbs below being the highest used POS other than time-related words as nouns, are then regarded as the two groups of POS that make up the most of the metaphorical expressions found in both texts. Verbs make up 22% of metaphorical expressions in OT. In ST, out of 73 metaphors of time, 27% of them are verbal metaphors, making the presence of verbal metaphors more apparent in ST compared to OT.

Table 4.10

POS in metaphorical expressions in OT and ST

No	POS	OT	%	ST	%
1	Time-related words (nouns)	201	49.3	78	51.0
2	Verb	88	21.6	41	26.8
3	Preposition	54	13.3	15	9.8
4	Adjective	33	8.1	15	9.8
5	Adverb	21	5.2	4	2.6
6	Noun (other than time-related words)	10	2.5	0	0
	TOTAL	407	100	153	100

Table 4.10 shows that there indeed exist different forms of metaphors in OT and ST, where one category, nominal metaphor is only found in OT. This is perhaps due to the presence of nominal metaphors in this text in complicated structures, as below, which could be deemed as not suitable for a simplified literary text which should contain easier language structures.

For example, the excerpt shows the noun *loss* used to describe time with the form *noun* + *of* + *noun* [time-related words]. There are two *nouns* in the phrase, and finding which one is the head noun would be challenging for a second language learner:

“...but the loss of time which resulted from this cause, while it nearly drove Passepartout out of his senses, did not seem to affect his master in the least.”

It has been shown that the POS tagger provides many insights into the forms and functions of metaphors. The general description of a text can be retrieved easily with the help of the frequency list provided. Source domain identification is important before a conceptual metaphor can be formulated and highlighted. Hence, understanding the formulation of metaphors through the distribution of POS in metaphorical expressions could give useful insights and deeper analysis leading to a more precise summary about the distribution of metaphors of time in OT and ST.

4.1.3 Concordance as a useful feature of corpus-based methodology

Corpus data allows thorough metaphor analysis by providing access to contextual views of authentic use of language (Wikberg, 2008). The contextual views are available through the concordance lines generated with each word/frequency/tagset. This also applies to both figurative and non-figurative authentic language samples. It is especially helpful when determining whether a word is metaphorically used or not depending on its immediate context. Take the word *behind* for example. In the concordance line in Figure 4.2, 9 out of 28 instances of the word *behind* are used metaphorically in OT.

28 occurrences.			Extend context	
Fogg , whose head now emerged from	behind	his newspapers , who made this rema	1	More Full
n steamers to be two or three days	behind	time ? But a single delay would suf	2	More Full
time , that this steamer is never	behind	time ? No , Mr. Fix , replied the c	3	More Full
like to leave traces of his flight	behind	him ; and , besides , he is not obl	4	More Full
t London time , which is two hours	behind	that of Suez . You ought to regulat	5	More Full
night the trainleft the mountains	behind	, and passed Nassik , and the next	6	More Full
he tambourines and cymbals ; while	behind	them was drawn a car with large whe	7	More Full
crators very shoes , which he left	behind	him . Whereupon he placed a pair of	8	More Full
ll , leave the two thousand pounds	behind	him , but would decide to serve out	9	More Full
rns covered the foreground , while	behind	, the graceful outlines of the moun	10	More Full
nd as punctual as ever , not a day	behind	time ! But , Monsieur Fix , you do	11	More Full
would reach Hong Kong twenty hours	behind	time , and more if the storm lasted	12	More Full
s , it is true , twenty-four hours	behind	his time ; but this could not serio	13	More Full
-jib , so as to hold the wind from	behind	. Then they waited . John Bunsby ha	14	More Full
hese mountains of water which rose	behind	her ; but the adroit management of	15	More Full
scarfs , tied in an enormous knot	behind	an ornament which the modern Parisi	16	More Full
ic hubbub now arose on the terrace	behind	the flight of steps where they stoo	17	More Full
of playing a spade , when a voice	behind	him said , I should play a diamond	18	More Full
rom the engine , remained a little	behind	, whilst the locomotive rushed forw	19	More Full
eye could reach on the white plain	behind	, red trails were visible . The las	20	More Full
uctor . We are already three hours	behind	time . And when will another train	21	More Full
snow . The detective had remained	behind	. Several hours passed . The weathe	22	More Full
marching at their head , and just	behind	him were Passepartout and the other	23	More Full
as Fogg found himself twenty hours	behind	time . Passepartout , the involunta	24	More Full
d ! you are therefore twenty hours	behind	. Twelve from twenty leaves eight .	25	More Full
y upon which to hoist a jib-sail .	Behind	, a sort of rudder served to guide	26	More Full
than a cutter , and with the wind	behind	them , they slip over the surface o	27	More Full
he howling band at a safe distance	behind	. About noon Mudge perceived by cer	28	More Full

Figure 4.2: Concordance lines for the word *behind* in the original text (OT).

According to the concordance lines in Figure 4.2, *behind* is used metaphorically in instances such as:

...steamers to be two or three days behind time (line 2)

...as punctual as ever, not a day behind time! But Monsieur Fix, do you...

(line 11)

We are already three hours behind time. And when will another train...

(line 21)

Now, taking this lead, I keyed in the search query for a similar word in ST. A sample of the results is as in Figure 4.3:

14 occurrences.	Extend context
happy with him . Fix was two steps behind them . He was about to board the tr	1 More Full
orning , it had left the mountains behind . The first stop they made after le	2 More Full
hoes . After all , he had left his behind in the scuffle at the temple . The	3 More Full
bes . Another group pulled a woman behind them . She fell down with almost ev	4 More Full
ileas and Sir Francis watched from behind a nearby tree . " Oh , no ! " Phile	5 More Full
. " The two men slowly sneaked up behind the guard and hit him on the head .	6 More Full
them . Not wanting to leave Aouda behind . Phileas told her to come with the	7 More Full
" Quite well . And he 's not a day behind time ! We now have a young woman tr	8 More Full
as a storm brewed . The ship fell behind schedule . This upset Passepartout	9 More Full
rner . Suddenly , the man crept up behind Passepartout and knocked him on the	10 More Full
looked at the great clouds forming behind the boat . " Sir , " Captain Bunsby	11 More Full
away . 'We 're already three hours behind schedule . " " I will not go , " sh	12 More Full
At that very moment , Fix came up behind them and put his hand on Phileas 's	13 More Full
is that he 's at least twenty days behind . " It was now eight-forty . " Only	14 More Full

Figure 4.3: Concordance lines for the word behind in the simplified text (ST).

Out of 14 occurrences of behind, four of them are used metaphorically (concordance lines 8, 9, 12, 14). They are:

And he's not a day behind time! We now have a young woman... (line 8)

The ship fell behind schedule. This upset Passepartout... (line 9)

We are already three hours behind schedule. (line 12)

...is that he's at least twenty days behind. It was now eight-forty. (line 14)

The concordance lines not only make comparison easier but the steps of detecting and classifying metaphorical expressions are more manageable as compared to manual analysis. This means that in comparing two texts of the same discourse (an original novel and its simplified version), the concordance could direct the next step in identifying metaphors in the texts.

It is not enough to rely on semantic domain identification only. It is also important to look at each word and its use through concordance lines to make sure any metaphorical expression is not missed. Because this study uses corpus-based methodology to find instances of time metaphor, therefore the target domain is already fixed. The main objective is to find metaphors related to the concept of time, hence the meticulous observation of the semantic domain of time, which has demonstrated its contribution in finding metaphors of time.

4.2 Conceptual metaphors of time in *Around the World in 80 Days*

It is important to note that even though Wmatrix indeed provides access to automatic semantic domain identification, manual analysis is unavoidable. Identifying metaphorical expressions is the initial step in metaphor studies; the manual classification or categorization of the expressions is the subsequent. Then only conceptual metaphors such as TIME IS A RESOURCE, TIME IS MONEY, and so forth are recognized. Table 4.11 sums up the distribution of metaphorical expressions according to time conceptual metaphors in OT and ST:

Table 4.11

Distribution of time metaphors in OT and ST

Time metaphor	OT	%	ST	%
TIME IS A RESOURCE	59	28.6	31	41.3
TIME IS A CONTAINER	45	21.8	15	20.0
A SCHEDULE IS A MOVING OBJECT	36	17.5	5	6.7
TIME PASSING IS AN OBSERVER'S MOTION OVER A LANDSCAPE	25	12.1	7	9.3
TIME PASSING IS MOTION OF AN OBJECT	17	8.3	8	10.7
TIME IS MONEY	7	3.4	9	12.0
PERSONIFICATION	11	5.4	0	0
TIME IS DISTANCE	6	2.9	0	0
TOTAL	206	100	75	100

4.2.1 Time metaphor comparison in OT and ST

Before any comparison between the two texts (OT and ST) could be done, all metaphors of time were gathered and classified into their respective types of metaphors. The following sections delineate the types of time metaphors and how they are distributed across the two texts.

4.2.1.1 TIME IS A RESOURCE

The highest number of metaphorical expressions is found in the metaphor TIME IS A RESOURCE with 59 expressions. In this metaphor, time is regarded as an invaluable asset which can be gained, lost or recovered. We use time to accomplish our goals, and therefore, it is regarded as a “*valuable commodity*” (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980). The metaphor TIME IS A RESOURCE is a type of ontological metaphor where time is spoken of or comprehended in terms of things (Lakoff, 1993). We express the number of things we have using quantifying adjectives such as *plenty* and *a few*. Examples of expressions of this metaphor are as in Table 4.12:

Table 4.12

TIME IS A RESOURCE metaphors in OT

No.	Target domain	Source domain	Example of expressions
1	time	<i>plenty</i> (adjective)	You have <i>plenty</i> of time ; it’s only twelve o’clock. (Chapter 8)
2	moments	<i>a few</i> (adjective)	...to issue out again after the lapse of <i>a few</i> moments , but always in vain. (Chapter 30)
3	time	<i>lost</i> (verb)	Phileas Fogg <i>lost</i> no time in going on board the Carnatic, where he learned, to Aouda’s great delight – and perhaps to his own, though he betrayed no emotion – that Passepartout, a Frenchman, had really arrived on her the day before. (Chapter 14)
4	days	<i>gained</i> (verb)	The two days <i>gained</i> between London and Bombay had been lost, as has been seen, in the journey across India. (Chapter 14)
5	hours	<i>to spare</i> (verb)	I have yet twelve hours <i>to spare</i> ; I can devote them to that. (Chapter 12)

In the first and second example, time is quantified using the adjectives *plenty* and *a few*. Examples 3, 4 and 5 are figuratively expressed through the act of gaining, regaining and losing time similar to gaining, regaining and losing resources.

Table 4.13

TIME IS A RESOURCE metaphors in ST

No.	Target domain	Source domain	Example of expressions
1	time	<i>enough</i> (adjective)	But that's not <i>enough</i> time to pack your trunk, sir. (Chapter 3)
2	time	<i>small</i> (adjective)	This meant that Phileas would only lose a <i>small</i> bit of the time he had gained since starting his trip. (Chapter 7)
3	moment	<i>to spare</i> (verb)	"In eighty days," Phileas repeated. "We haven't a moment to spare ." (Chapter 3)
4	days	<i>left</i> (verb)	This <i>left</i> ten full days to get back to London by...
5	time	<i>took</i> (verb)	Having bought the new shirts and socks that Phileas had asked for, he <i>took</i> his time exploring Bombay's busy streets and crowded market squares. (Chapter 5)

The TIME IS A RESOURCE metaphor is also present in ST with 31 expressions. Adjectives such as *enough* and *small* (examples 1 and 2) are used to quantify uncountable time-related nouns. Verbs such as *spare*, *left* and *took* are used in expressions about time, where in these instances, time as a resource can potentially be in excess or used up. In example 3, the verb '*spare*' indicates that since the journey is going to be completed in 80 days, Mr Fogg states that they should make a move promptly to make sure that they can complete the journey in the promised time, thus elevating the feeling of being in a hurry.

The next example (4) exemplifies a condition where there is a calculation being made in planning the journey meticulously, while example 5 expresses a state of being able to use the time to do leisurely activity (*exploring Bombay's busy streets...*) since the duty given to Passepartout has been duly completed.

4.2.1.2 TIME IS A CONTAINER

The next conceptual metaphor of time is TIME IS A CONTAINER. It is a type of ontological metaphor (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980) where experiences are perceived with reference to “*objects, substances and containers*” without being explicit on what that particular “*object, substance or container*” is (Kovecses, 2010). The metaphorical expressions in this conceptual metaphor suggest that time-related events happen in a container. In other words, time is regarded as a container where: 1) events can happen either in or out of the container (or time); 2) events can happen between containers, where it moves out of one container into another (e.g. out of the century, into a period, etc.); and 3) time has the characteristics of a container where it can be filled with something, for example in the expression “*fill your time with useful activity*”.

Table 4.14

TIME IS A CONTAINER metaphors in OT

No.	Target domain	Source domain	Example of expressions
1	days	<i>in</i> (preposition)	Yes, <i>in</i> eighty days ! exclaimed Stuart, who in his excitement made a false deal. (Chapter 3)
2	minutes		We start for Dover and Calais <i>in</i> ten minutes . A puzzled grin overspread Passepartout’s round face; clearly he had not comprehended his master. (Chapter 4)
3	hours		At half-past twelve the travelers caught side for an instant of Fort Halleck, which commands that section; and <i>in</i> a few more hours the Rocky Mountains were crossed. (Chapter 28)
4	1845		Between Omaha and the Pacific the railway crosses a territory which is still infested by Indians and wild beasts, and a large tract which the Mormons, after they were driven from Illinois <i>in</i> 1845 , began to colonize. (Chapter 26)
5	delay	<i>filled</i> (verb)	Each delay <i>filled</i> him with hope, for it became more and more probable that Frogg would be obliged to remain some days at Hong Kong; and now the heavens themselves became his allies, with the gusts and squalls. (Chapter 18)

There are 44 instances of this metaphor in OT and the examples are presented in Table 4.14. There is only one preposition used to conceptualize time in this manner, *in* as a preposition. Since the title of the novel contains the expression in a time-related word, many references of time as being in a container actually refer to the title, *Around the World in 80 Days* (example 1). However, there are also other examples with no relation to the title which are used to express the duration between an event happening in current time and a future event (example 2 and 3) as in the table above. The expression in example 4 describes time as a container but from a different view where it does not involve duration between events but it describes an event happening in a single container i.e. the year 1845. The use of the metaphor TIME IS A CONTAINER is also evident in example 5, where time is described as being able to be filled with something, thus acting as a container.

Table 4.15

TIME IS A CONTAINER metaphors in ST

No.	Target domain	Source domain	Example of expressions
1	days	<i>in</i> (preposition)	"Correct!" Phileas said. "I will make a tour of the world <i>in</i> eighty days or less." (Chapter 2)
2	days		"We must be back <i>in</i> eighty days ." Passepartout opened his eyes wide. Then, he raised his eyebrows and held up his hands in disbelief. (Chapter 3)
3	hours		"Of course not," the conductor said. "'We've telegraphed ahead for another train to meet us at Medicine Bow <i>in</i> six hours .'" (Chapter 13)
4	hours		He needed to be at the Reform Club <i>in</i> exactly nine hours . (Chapter 16)
5	months		"Perhaps, but that doesn't change the fact that one man can now travel around the world <i>in</i> three months ," Ralph said. (Chapter 2)

The presence of the TIME IS A CONTAINER metaphors in ST is as in Table 4.15. In ST, metaphorical expressions of the TIME IS A CONTAINER metaphor also include

references to the title of the book (example 1 and 2), while examples 3, 4 and 5 refer to expressions about time duration between a current event and a future event. There is only one type of TIME IS A CONTAINER metaphor in ST, where events happen in a container (time), exemplified by time-related words such as days, hours and months.

4.2.1.3 A SCHEDULE IS A MOVING OBJECT

In the metaphor A SCHEDULE IS A MOVING OBJECT, a schedule refers to a sequence of events; and an event behaves the same way as a moving object (Lakoff, Espenson & Schwartz, 1991). Time-related events described in this manner are related to punctuality such as being early or late. When an event happens earlier than expected, it moves in front of time, but when it happens later than expected, it moves behind time.

Table 4.16

A SCHEDULE IS A MOVING OBJECT metaphors in OT

No.	Target domain	Source domain	Example of expressions
1	time	<i>in advance of (adverb)</i>	I repeat that the Mongolia has been <i>in advance of</i> the time required by the company's regulations, and gained the prize awarded for excess of speed. (Chapter 6)
2	time	<i>in advance of (adverb)</i>	And he doesn't spare the money on the way, either: he has offered a large reward to the engineer of the Mongolia if he gets us to Bombay well <i>in advance of time</i> . (Chapter 8)
3	time	<i>ahead (adverb)</i>	We arrived twenty-four hours <i>ahead of time</i> ; but there are only ten minutes left! (Chapter 37)
4	hours	<i>behind-hand (adjective)</i>	Phileas Fogg was twenty-four hours <i>behind-hand</i> , and the Yokohama steamer, of course, would be missed. (Chapter 18)
5	time	<i>behind (adverb)</i>	We are already three hours <i>behind</i> time. (Chapter 30)

In OT, there are 36 metaphorical expressions categorized as A SCHEDULE IS A MOVING OBJECT. The examples 1, 2 and 3 in Table 4.16 are expressions stating that the time-related events have happened earlier than planned, while examples 4 and 5 are instances of events being late.

Table 4.17

A SCHEDULE IS A MOVING OBJECT metaphors in ST

No.	Target domain	Source domain	Example of expressions
1	time	<i>made</i> (verb)	In fact, the Mongolia made excellent <i>time</i> . It arrived two days early! (Chapter 5)
2	time	<i>ahead</i> (adverb)	Mr Stephenson sighed. "Yes, Mr Fix. That is correct. If anything, the Mongolia sometimes gets here <i>ahead</i> of time ." (Chapter 4)
3	time	<i>behind</i> (adverb)	"Quite well. And he's not a day <i>behind</i> time ! We now have a young woman travelling with us, too!" (Chapter 10)
4	hours	<i>behind</i> (adverb)	"I'm afraid that's not possible. We must get going right away. 'We're already three hours <i>behind</i> schedule.'" (Chapter 14)
5	days	<i>behind</i> (adverb)	"The only steamer he could have been on was the China, and I know for a fact he wasn't. My guess is that he's at least twenty days <i>behind</i> ." (Chapter 17)

This metaphor is also present in ST (Table 4.17), although with only minimal presence (5 instances). Interestingly, one expression (example 1) uses the verb *made* combined with *excellent time*, when stating that an event happens earlier than expected. It is an instance of using *make* which means “manage to arrive within a specified time”. To see this example in a simplified version instead of the original one shows that the writer of ST has tried to use a different way of expressing punctuality, instead of using the widely used *in advance of* as found in OT. The use of *ahead* when stating an event is early (example 2) and *behind* when stating an event is late is retained as evident in examples 3, 4 and 5.

4.2.1.4 TIME PASSING IS AN OBSERVER'S MOTION OVER A LANDSCAPE

The metaphor TIME PASSING IS AN OBSERVER'S MOTION OVER A LANDSCAPE is used to express time-related events in the condition where the person experiencing the event is moving and time is a static entity. In other words, the person experiencing time is the trajectory, and time itself is a landmark, where time in this metaphor can be quantified in lengths (Lakoff, Espenson & Schwartz, 1991). The examples of this kind of metaphor as found in OT are in Table 4.18:

Table 4.18

TIME PASSING IS AN OBSERVER'S MOTION OVER A LANDSCAPE metaphors in OT

No.	Target domain	Source domain	Example of expressions
1	moments	<i>longer</i> (adjective)	A quarter of an hour later found Fix, with a small bag in his hand, proceeding on board the Mongolia; and ere many moments <i>longer</i> , the noble steamer rode out at full steam upon the waters of the Red Sea. (Chapter 8)
2	time	<i>pass</i> (verb)	How did this eccentric personage <i>pass</i> his time on the Mongolia? (Chapter 9)
3	noon	<i>towards</i> (preposition)	Kiouni, resuming his rapid gait, soon descended the lower spurs of the Vindhias, and <i>towards</i> noon they passed by the village of Kallenger, (Chapter 12)
4	period	<i>within</i> (preposition)	A railway train from San Francisco to New York, and a transatlantic steamer from New York to Liverpool, would doubtless bring them to the end of this impossible journey round the world <i>within</i> the period agreed upon. (Chapter 24)
5	minutes	<i>long</i> (adjective)	Certainly, however secure they felt, minutes had never seemed so <i>long</i> to them! (Chapter 36)

Other than the use of a verb such as *pass* where the doer is the person experiencing time, this metaphor is also signalled by the presence of adjectives (e.g.: *long* and *longer*) and prepositions (e.g.: *within* and *towards*). The prepositions are used to describe time as a landscape with a person moving in it, while the adjectives describe time as having a property of a landmark and can be sized up in lengths.

Table 4.19

TIME PASSING IS AN OBSERVER'S MOTION OVER A LANDSCAPE metaphors in ST

No.	Target domain	Source domain	Example of expressions
1	time	<i>passed</i> (verb)	Instead, he <i>passed</i> his time much as he did at the Reform Club - he ate his meals and played cards. (Chapter 4)
2	hours	<i>passed</i> (verb)	And so the group <i>passed</i> many hours in just that fashion-playing cards, chatting with one another, and eating breakfast, lunch, or dinner. (Chapter 13)
3	time	<i>pass</i> (verb)	They looked at one another and tried to read the newspapers to <i>pass</i> the time . (Chapter 17)
4	night	<i>through</i> (preposition)	The train drove on <i>through</i> the night . (Chapter 6)
5	hours	<i>long and slow</i> (adjective)	These are <i>long</i> and <i>slow</i> hours to pass on the train. (Chapter 13)

In ST, the use of the verb *pass* in many forms is also present in linguistic expressions of the metaphor TIME PASSING IS AN OBSERVER'S MOTION OVER A LANDSCAPE (Table 4.19). In many instances of the use of the verb *pass*, it is noticed that these expressions (1, 2 and 3) are used to sum up several occasions in the OT version of the text. Take example 2, where the time metaphor is used to shorten an explanation of the scenery and places the train passed by during the journey to New York:

And so the group passed many hours in just that fashion – playing cards, chatting with one another, and eating breakfast, lunch, or dinner. (Chapter 13)

This is a summary of these several events that mention time-related words as found in OT:

1. *At eleven in the morning the train had reached the dividing ridge of the waters at Bridger Pass, seven thousand five hundred and twenty-four feet above the level of the sea, one of the highest points attained by the track in crossing the Rocky Mountains.*
2. *At half-past twelve the travellers caught sight for an instant of Fort Halleck, which commands that section; and in a few more hours the Rocky Mountains were crossed.*
3. *After a comfortable breakfast, served in the car, Mr Fogg and his partners had just resumed whist, when a violent whistling was heard, and the train stopped. Passepartout put his head out of the door, but saw nothing to cause the delay; no station was in view.*

Prepositions (example 4) and *adjectives* (example 5) are used to exemplify the condition where time is regarded as having the property of a landmark in which a person experiencing time moves. Further discussion will be provided on these changes in the next chapter (see 5.2).

4.2.1.5 TIME PASSING IS MOTION OF AN OBJECT

This metaphor is closely related to the TIME PASSING IS AN OBSERVER'S MOTION OVER A LANDSCAPE metaphor as both metaphors involve time and persona (or observer) interchangeably acting as space or motion. The metaphor TIME PASSING IS MOTION OF AN OBJECT refers to the condition where time is seen as something that moves towards (or away) from the persona experiencing the time-related event. In other words, time is the entity that moves, and the persona experiencing it is in a static condition, or a landmark.

Table 4.20

TIME PASSING IS MOTION OF AN OBJECT metaphors in OT

No.	Target	Source	Example of expressions
1	time	<i>passed</i> (verb)	What with the military men, a number of rich young Englishmen on their travels, and the hospitable efforts of the purser, the time <i>passed</i> quickly on the Mongolia. (Chapter 9)
2	days	<i>passed</i> (verb)	The first few days of the voyage <i>passed</i> prosperously, amid favourable weather and propitious winds, (Chapter 16)
3	hour	<i>had...come</i> (verb)	Had the hour of adversity <i>come</i> ? (Chapter 18)
4	time	<i>had not yet arrived</i> (verb)	He thought that the time <i>had not yet arrived</i> to divulge... (Chapter 24)
5	night	<i>approached</i> (verb)	As night <i>approached</i> , the snow fell less plentifully, but it became intensely cold. (Chapter 30)

There are 17 instances of expressions using this metaphor in OT, using a variety of verbs of movement. They are, as in the examples in Table 4.20, *passed*, *had come*, *had not yet arrived* and *approached*. All these words give an image of time as an object moving, which applies both to countable time-related words (*days*, *hour*, *night*) and uncountable ones (*time*).

Table 4.21

TIME PASSING IS MOTION OF AN OBJECT metaphors in ST

No.	Target domain	Source domain	Example of expressions
1	days	<i>passed</i> (verb)	As the days <i>passed</i> , Passepartout began to think it was quite strange that he should keep running into Mr Fix. (Chapter 10)
2	dawn	<i>brought</i> (verb)	Dawn <i>brought</i> with it a dark and gloomy sky. (Chapter 11)
3	moment, minute, hour	<i>stretched</i> (verb)	A moment <i>stretched</i> to a minute , which <i>stretched</i> to an hour . (Chapter 11)
4	day, night	<i>turned</i> (verb)	Day <i>turned</i> to night and then night back to day as the storm raged around them. (Chapter 11)
5	evening	<i>fell</i> (verb)	It was still snowing. Evening <i>fell</i> and still the prisoners hadn't returned. (Chapter 14)

In ST, the presence of this metaphor is also prevalent (Table 4.21). There are eight expressions in this category of metaphor and among the words used are passed, brought, fell, stretched and turned. Interestingly, similar to the metaphor TIME PASSING IS AN OBSERVER'S MOTION OVER A LANDSCAPE, the use of this metaphor was also found to shorten several descriptions that were present in the original version of ATW80D. This can be seen in example 2:

Dawn brought with it a dark and gloomy sky.

The expression above refers to several descriptions about a storm that the travellers were about to experience:

In the example above, the description of the storm is made in stages, where it starts with “*frequent fog and heavy gales*”, followed by “*little by little swelled into a tempest*”. The ST version is a very short statement that states that a storm is about to come. Therefore, in this instance, it can be inferred that metaphorical expressions using the

metaphor where time is moving in a landscape is used to sum up several events together and stated in a compact and short expression of the passing of time.

4.2.1.6 TIME IS MONEY

At a glance, the metaphor TIME IS MONEY looks very similar to the metaphor TIME IS A RESOURCE. It is indeed true that the former is an extension of the latter. However, it is different from TIME IS A RESOURCE because it refers specifically to money, which in this case, the repetitive uses of the word spend in many forms (*spending, spent, to spend*) and save.

Table 4.22

TIME IS MONEY metaphors in OT

No.	Target domain	Source domain	Example of expressions
1	hours	<i>spent</i> (verb)	Total of hours <i>spent</i> , 158 ^{1/2} ; or, in days, six days and a half. (Chapter 7)
2	hours	<i>saved</i> (verb)	In that case, Mr Fogg would only lose a part of the forty-eight hours <i>saved</i> since the beginning of the tour. (Chapter 12)
3	vacation	<i>spending</i> (verb)	There was a full complement of passengers on board, among them English, many Americans, a large number of Coolies on their way to California, and several East Indian officers, who were <i>spending</i> their vacation in making the tour of the world. (Chapter 24)
4	day	<i>to spend</i> (verb)	Mr Fogg, on reaching shore, proceeded to find out at what hour the first train left for New York, and learned that this was a six o'clock p.m.; he had, therefore, an entire day <i>to spend</i> in the Californian capital.(Chapter 25)
5	hours	<i>spent</i> (verb)	Mr Fogg and his party had time to pay a visit to Salt Lake City, connected with Ogden by a branch road; and they <i>spent</i> two hours in this strikingly American town, built on the pattern of other cities of the Union, like a checker-board, “with the somber sadness of right angles,” as Victor Hugo expresses it. (Chapter 27)

In Table 4.22, money-related terms are used seven times when describing the amount of time that the events in the novel take in doing something, or the amount of time that Phileas Fogg still has in his hand when planning for the next destination. Time is exemplified as being as valuable as money in OT since the purpose of the journey is not only to keep up with Phileas Fogg's promise to his friends at the Reform Club, but also to win a wager of 20,000 pounds sterling.

Table 4.23

TIME IS MONEY metaphors in ST

No.	Target domain	Source domain	Example of expressions
1	time	<i>spent</i> (verb)	Phileas Fogg didn't care for sightseeing, so he <i>spent</i> little time on deck. (Chapter 5)
2	time	<i>spent</i> (verb)	Aouda <i>spent</i> much of her time on deck with Phileas trying to calm her down. (Chapter 15)
3	time	<i>save</i> (verb)	Ali had told them that they could <i>save</i> a lot of time by taking a shortcut, and so there they were, but it was much rougher than the normal road. (Chapter 7)
4	day	<i>spent</i> (verb)	He <i>spent</i> much of the day there and then went back into the dining room for his supper. (Chapter 2)
5	afternoons	<i>spent</i> (verb)	As on the Mongolia, Passepartout often <i>spent</i> his afternoons walking around on deck. (Chapter 10)

Examples of the metaphorical expressions of the TIME IS MONEY metaphor in ST can be seen in Table 4.23. In ST, there are nine instances of metaphorical expressions categorized as belonging to the metaphor TIME IS MONEY. Therefore, the conceptualization of time as money is more prevalent in ST compared to OT. Consequently, this suggests that time is more valuable than money in ST than in OT.

It is also interesting to note that the formation of the metaphorical expressions that relate time to money also include quantifier adjectives. In the example above, we can see the

quantifier *little*, *much of* and *a lot of* being used with time-related words. There is a pattern in the use of quantifier adjectives when discussing the value of time in terms of money (4 out of 9). In OT, this pattern is also present (3 out of 7 instances come with quantifier adjectives).

This finding suggests that when TIME IS MONEY metaphors are used, time-related terms are preceded or succeeded by quantifier adjectives. The conceptualization of time into the characteristics of money such as the act of counting money (hence the quantification) is also one of the metaphor signals apart from the verbs in the expressions. Without the money-related terms, these expressions might belong in the TIME IS A RESOURCE category of metaphor, however, with specific reference to money-related terms, these expressions are considered to be in the TIME IS MONEY metaphor.

4.2.1.7 Personification

Since actions do not happen by themselves and thus need an agent, we give the role of the agent to external events that we are trying to understand such as time, death, etc. Time is literally understood as a changer that can affect people and things in many ways (Kovecses, 2010), therefore, it is given the characteristics of a person and thus is able to perform many things that a human being can. Table 4.24 shows the personification metaphors in OT.

Table 4.24

Personification metaphors in OT

No.	Target	Source	Example of expressions
1	o'clock	<i>struck</i> (verb)	Soon her gigantic hull appeared passing along between the banks, and eleven o'clock <i>struck</i> as she anchored in the road. (Chapter 6)
2	day	<i>reappeared</i> (verb)	Day <i>reappeared</i> . The tempest still raged with undiminished fury; but the wind now returned to the south-east. (Chapter 21)
3	hours	<i>crept</i> (verb)	So reasoned the detective, while the hours <i>crept</i> by all too slowly. (Chapter 30)
4	watch	<i>agreed</i> (verb)	Now, on this day, though he had not changed the hands, he found that his watch exactly <i>agreed</i> with the ship's chronometers. (Chapter 24)
5	time	<i>pretty</i> (adjective)	If one listened to that sort of people, a <i>pretty</i> sort of time one would keep! (Chapter 24)

The personification of time in the OT refers to the movement and the features of animate entities. Time moves and changes the sequence of events when it *struck*, *reappeared*, *agreed* and *crept*, much like how human beings function. When time makes a move, it signifies the turn of an event (*struck*, *reappeared* and *crept* in example 1, 2 and 3) and the act of compliance with immediate surroundings (*agreed* in example 4).

When time is being referred to its attribute (*pretty* in example 5), it is being described as having a similar attribute to a human being i.e. being annoying, because the expression was made by Passepartout who refuses to change the time of his watch as he crosses countries. His use of “*pretty*” is an ironic reference to Detective Fix whom he believes is preposterous when he mentions how time changes as people move into different time zones. This is another example of a novel metaphor (1.2) which is used when expressing something with a strong feeling towards an event.

4.2.1.8 TIME IS DISTANCE

The metaphor TIME IS DISTANCE refers to how the time it takes to reach a place is characterized in the distance between one location to another. It is an extension of the metaphor TIME PASSING IS AN OBSERVER'S MOTION OVER A LANDSCAPE (4.2.1.4). It is related to the metaphor TIME PASSING IS AN OBSERVER'S MOTION OVER A LANDSCAPE for two reasons. First, in this metaphor, time can be quantified in terms of length for example, a short time or long and slow hours. Second, the observer also moves in the metaphor TIME IS DISTANCE, where the experiencer passes the distance which quantifies the time taken to reach from one place to another.

Table 4.25

TIME IS DISTANCE metaphors in OT

No.	Target domain	Source domain	Example of expressions
1	days	<i>voyage</i> (noun)	It is a ten days <i>voyage</i> by sea. (Chapter 8)
2	days	<i>voyage</i> (noun)	... and if Mr Fogg was twenty-four hours late on reaching Yokohama, this time would no doubt be easily regained in the <i>voyage</i> of twenty-two days across the Pacific. (Chapter 18)
3	hours	<i>drive</i> (noun)	After a <i>drive</i> of two hours through the country, Aouda and Mr Fogg returned to the town, which is a vast collection of heavy-looking, irregular houses, surrounded by charming gardens rich in tropical fruits and plants... (Chapter 17)
4	hours	<i>distant</i> (adjective)	He was only six hours <i>distant</i> from London. (Chapter 33)
5	hours	<i>journey</i> (noun)	Having arrived at Liverpool at twenty minutes before twelve on the 21 st of December, he had till a quarter before nine that evening to reach the Reform Club, that is, nine hours and a quarter; the <i>journey</i> from Liverpool to London was six hours . (Chapter 34)

When we talk about distance, we usually state the length in kilometres or miles. However, it is also a norm to refer to it as how long would it take to reach the place, using time-related terms such as *minutes*, *hours* or *days*. Let us look at the examples in Table 4.25. In example 1 and 2, the duration of the sea travel is understood in terms of the duration of time the travellers will have to go through.

Example 3 looks at the noun *drive* describing the act of taking land transportation by the experiencer while example 4 simply uses the word *distant* when referring to the traveling time. Lastly, example 5 uses the word *journey* to describe the act of passing time which is quantified in the distance from one point to another.

There is a significant presence of the conceptualization of time in both original and simplified versions of the novel *Around the World in 80 Days*. Out of eight time metaphors, two are not found in the simplified text, i.e. personification metaphors and TIME IS DISTANCE metaphors. All of these metaphors of time are manifested through the use of various linguistic metaphorical expressions about time throughout the texts.

After listing down the metaphors found in the texts and the linguistic expressions associated with them, it is imperative to further analyse the changes in the patterns of time metaphors when the original text was rewritten for simplification purposes. The next section (4.3) will explain the patterns of changes, the rationale and implications of the changes in the distribution of time metaphors as found in the original and simplified versions of ATWI80D.

4.3 Implications of the changes of figurative language use in *Around the World in 80 Days*

Throughout this section, the discussion of the patterns of change of time metaphors in the original and simplified versions of the novel *Around the World in 80 Days* will give more information on the effects of simplification upon the distribution of time metaphors in the novel. Previous studies have found that simplification has several effects on a text, both positively and negatively. Proponents of simplified texts believe that a simplified version of reading material could aid literal comprehension as the text is shortened and it has a more focused linguistic structure (Ellis, 1993; Crossley, Allen and MacNamara, 2011b), while opponents prefer the original text because they are of the opinion that simplification inherently shortens the text and thus can cause a loss of message (Goodman and Freeman, 1993).

4.3.1 Reproduction of metaphor with minimal adjustments

The presence of time metaphors in the simplified text taken from the original text suggests that there are reproductions of such metaphors even after a text is modified for a different set of readers. There were efforts taken to preserve the original time metaphors present in the original text.

There are several types of reproduction of time metaphors in the simplified text. They are; 1) reproduction without any adjustments, 2) using a different choice of words and 3) using different sentence types or structures.

4.3.1.1 Reproduction without any adjustments

In several cases, the time metaphors were transferred directly without any adjustments. Examples of this type of change from the original text to the simplified text are evident in Table 4.26.

Table 4.26

Time metaphor reproduction without any adjustments

No.	Time Metaphor	Original	Simplified
1	TIME IS A RESOURCE	<i>"I have yet <u>twelve hours to spare</u>; I can devote them to that."</i> (Chapter 12)	<i>"I have <u>twelve hours to spare</u> - we must save her!"</i> (Chapter 7)
2	TIME IS A RESOURCE	<i>...Mr Fogg and his party <u>had time</u> to pay a visit to Salt Lake City...</i> (Chapter 27)	<i>This meant that the travellers <u>had time</u> to explore Salt Lake City.</i> (Chapter 13)
3	TIME IS A CONTAINER	<i>"I know it; I don't blame you. We start for Dover and Calais <u>in ten minutes</u>."</i> (Chapter 4)	<i>"I know," Phileas said, "but we're leaving for Dover <u>in ten minutes</u>."</i> (Chapter 3)
4	A SCHEDULE IS A MOVING OBJECT	<i>"As well and as punctual as ever, <u>not a day behind time</u>! But, Monsieur Fix, you don't know that we have a young lady with us."</i> (Chapter 16)	<i>"And he's <u>not a day behind time</u>! We now have a young woman travelling with us, too!"</i> (Chapter 10)
5	TIME IS A CONTAINER	<i>But the incredulous Stuart was not convinced... 'You have a strange way, Ralph, of proving that the world has grown smaller. So, because you can go round it <u>in three months</u>—'</i> (Chapter 3)	<i>"Perhaps, but that doesn't change the fact that one man can now travel around the world <u>in three months</u>," Ralph said. (Chapter 2)</i>

The first example is when Mr Fogg and his entourage find Aouda, the woman who ends as Phileas Fogg's wife, in the forest. They decide to stay to save her from being buried.

Even in this dire situation, Mr Fogg still expresses his opinion about the amount of time he has left, *I have twelve hours to spare* and it is similar to the original version, *I have yet twelve hours to spare*. The use of the word *yet* in the original version perhaps was regarded as being confusing and thus was taken out in the simplified version.

The second example is taken from the scene where the travellers have the chance to explore Salt Lake City during their journey in a train, where they “*had time*” to explore the town, an expression found in the original version. The third example is where Mr Fogg is informing Passepartout that their journey is going to start and it is starting *in ten minutes*, and the time metaphor was also reproduced as is. In the fourth example, the scene is about Passepartout discovering that Detective Fix is on board with them and he is explaining about Aouda and at the same time emphasizing that Mr Fogg is still in the running of going around the world without being late.

The fifth example shows a switch of character, as in the original text, it was Stuart who mentioned about going around the world in 3 months and he is addressing Ralph as he is saying it. Ralph does not mention about going anywhere in 3 months, instead, his original words were “*a man can now go round it ten times more quickly than a hundred years ago*”.

The rationalization of reproducing the metaphors perhaps lies in the necessity to assert Mr Fogg’s insistence on always being on time, and expressions using time metaphors such as *not a day behind time* or *twelve hours to spare* give the feeling of being punctual as the main gist of the story. Because these time metaphors are maintained according to their original form, the sense of urgency found in many instances in the original novel is maintained as well.

4.3.1.2 Using different words

Time metaphors are also recycled by using a different choice of words. In these instances, words with a similar meaning are used to convey similar metaphorical expressions. This is perhaps done with the intention to make the text simpler to readers of the simplified text.

Table 4.27

Time metaphor reproduction using different words

No.	Time Metaphor	Original	Simplified
1	A SCHEDULE IS A MOVING OBJECT	<i>"I repeat that the Mongolia has been <u>in advance of the time</u> required by the company's regulations, and gained the prize awarded for excess of speed.'</i> (Chapter 6)	<i>Mr Stephenson sighed. "Yes, Mr Fix. That is correct. If anything, the Mongolia sometimes gets here <u>ahead of time</u>."</i> (Chapter 4)
2	TIME IS A RESOURCE	<i>There <u>remained yet six hours</u> in which to accomplish that distance.</i> (Chapter 21)	<i>They <u>had but six hours</u> to reach their destination or risk missing the steamer.</i> (Chapter 11)
3	TIME IS A RESOURCE	<i>Mr Fogg <u>had not time</u> to stop the brave fellow, who, opening a door unperceived by the Indians, succeeded in slipping under the car...</i> (Chapter 29)	<i>Phileas <u>did not have time</u> to stop him.</i> (Chapter 14)
4	TIME IS A RESOURCE	<i>Calcutta was reached at seven in the morning, and the packet left for Hong Kong at noon; so that Phileas Fogg <u>had five hours</u> before him.</i> (Chapter 14)	<i>They <u>had a few hours</u> before it was due to leave.</i> (Chapter 9)
5	TIME IS A RESOURCE	<i>His passage had fortunately been paid for in advance; and he <u>had five or six days</u> in which to decide upon his future course.</i> (Chapter 22)	<i>The trip was to take five or six days, so at least Passepartout <u>had some time</u> to figure out what to do.</i> (Chapter 12)

The examples in Table 4.27 demonstrate how words or phrases are replaced with other words or phrases with similar meaning. Phrases in the simplified version such as *ahead of time* replaces *in advance of time*, *had but six hours* replaces *remained yet six hours*, and *did not have time* replaces *had not time*. In these instances (example 1, 2 and 3) all the words deemed as potentially confusing to the readers are taken out and replaced with simpler, straightforward English.

A closer look at the patterns of change also reveal that the reproductions involve reduction of specificity as in examples 4 and 5, where *had a few hours* replaces *had five hours*, and *had some time* replaces *had five or six days*. The changes demonstrate the tendency of the writer of the simplified version to not state the amount of time and instead use generic unspecific terms such as *a few* and *some*.

4.3.1.3 Different sentence types or structures

Other than that, another apparent pattern is when time metaphors are copied word by word from the original version, but they are used in different sentence types. For example, dialogues or conversations are turned into narrative expressions as evident in Table 4.28.

Table 4.28

Reproductions using different sentence types or structures

No.	Time Metaphor	Original	Simplified
1	TIME IS A CONTAINER	<i>You are going to put to sea?’ ‘In an hour.’ ‘You are bound for—’ ‘Bordeaux.’ (Chapter 32)</i>	<i>"Yes. We leave for Bordeaux in an hour," Captain Speedy answered. (Chapter 15)</i>
2	TIME IS A CONTAINER	<i>How did this eccentric personage pass his time on the Mongolia? He made his four hearty meals every day, regardless of the most persistent rolling and pitching on the part of the steamer; and he played whist indefatigably, for he had found partners as enthusiastic in the game as himself. (Chapter 9)</i>	<i>Instead, he passed his time much as he did at the Reform Club - he ate his meals and played cards. (Chapter 5)</i>

In the first example, the original version has several dialogue lines and reports a conversation between Mr Fogg and Captain Speedy. In the simplified version, there is a lack of negotiation and it is stated in one direct statement. The second example is taken from the scene which discusses what Mr Fogg's life is like while he is boarding the ship called the Mongolia. The original version opens the discussion in the form of a question

which is used to ignite the curiosity of the readers, while the simplified version puts it in a statement.

This step of using different sentence structures is done to give an unambiguous interpretation of the scene for the ease of readers of the simplified version of the text and potentially shorten the text for the readers' benefit.

4.3.2 Addition of tuning devices

The addition of tuning devices means that where in the original version of the text there are no metaphors, they are present in the simplified version. There are several types of addition of tuning devices found in the patterns of change of time metaphors in this study. First, time metaphors are used to sum up several occasions. Second, time metaphors are used to make clarifications. Finally, there are two cases where the addition of metaphors is regarded as somewhat confusing, and this will be discussed later on in this subsection.

4.3.2.1 Time metaphors for summing up several occasions

The examples in Table 4.29 demonstrate circumstances when time metaphors are used to sum up several occasions in one short sentence. The first example sums up several days of occasions where the boat that the travellers are on goes through a storm. The original version tells the scene in stages of how it begins and ends, but the simplified version summarizes the whole scene in one sentence.

Table 4.29

Addition of metaphor to sum up several occasions

No	Time Metaphor	Original	Simplified
1	PERSONIFICATION	<i>The boat scudded thus northward during the whole day ... At night the tempest increased in violence. (Chapter 21)</i>	<i><u>Day turned to night and then night back to day</u> as the storm raged around them. (Chapter 11)</i>
2	TIME PASSING IS AN OBSERVER'S MOTION OVER A LANDSCAPE	<i>Mr Fogg and his partners had resumed their game; no one not even the dummy complained of the length of the trip. (Chapter 29).</i>	<i>As the train drove on, the four passengers <u>passed the time</u> playing cards. (Chapter 14)</i>
3	TIME PASSING IS MOTION OF AN OBJECT	<i>Passepartout began very seriously to conjecture what strange chance kept Fix still on the route that his master was pursuing. It was really worth considering why this certainly very amiable and complacent person, whom he had first met at Suez, had then encountered on board the Mongolia, who disembarked at Bombay, which he announced as his destination, and now turned up so unexpectedly on the Rangoon, was following Mr Fogg's tracks step by step. (CHAPTER 17)</i>	<i><u>As the days passed</u>, Passepartout began to think it was quite strange that he should keep running into Mr Fix. (Chapter 10)</i>

The second and third example show how the use of the word *passed* is used to sum up several happenings in the story. First, the excerpt from Chapter 14 (ST) not only makes the scene seem like a brief happening, but it also has also taken out confrontations, where Mr Fogg is about to fight with Colonel Proctor. The excerpt from Chapter 10 (example 3) is about Passepartout who finally discovers that Detective Fix is indeed

following Mr Fogg and him. The addition of time metaphors into the simplified text with the purpose of shortening events or summing up several events by simply using expressions such as *as the days passed* has two implications. First, it inherently shortens the text in order to make it a simplified version; and secondly, it takes out several events which were deemed as being less than important.

4.3.2.2 Time metaphors used to make clarifications

The first example of how time metaphors are used to make clarifications (Table 4.30) is when Passepartout, who is still in disbelief after finding out that his master is going on a trip inquires about his master's trunks. He expects his master to need a lot of things to be packed, however, things are not as he expected. His master just requires one small carpet bag and that continues to befuddle Passepartout.

The simplified version makes Passepartout's inquiry sound very polite and less urgent, while the original represents Passepartout's bewilderment. Making Passepartout sound polite instead of bewildered fails to carry the original meaning which is, the journey that Mr Fogg is about to take is something that has never been carried out before and had stirred up the community which he is living in, hence stressing the importance of the journey.

Table 4.30

Time metaphor addition to make clarifications

No.	Time Metaphor	Original	Simplified
1	TIME IS A RESOURCE	<i>“But the trunks?” gasped Passepartout, unconsciously swaying his head from right to left. (Chapter 4)</i>	<i>“But that's <u>not enough time</u> to pack your trunk, sir” Passepartout said. (Chapter 3)</i>
2	TIME IS A RESOURCE	<i>The train entered the station, and Passepartout jumping out first, was followed by Mr Fogg, who assisted his fair companion to descend. Phileas Fogg intended to proceed at once to the Hong Kong steamer, in order to get Aouda comfortably settled for the voyage. (Chapter 15)</i>	<i>Phileas wanted to get going right away so they could board the Hong Kong steamer in <u>plenty of time</u>. (Chapter 9)</i>
3	TIME IS A RESOURCE	<i>By making twelve miles an hour, she would cross the ocean in twenty-one days. Phileas Fogg was therefore justified in hoping that he would reach San Francisco by the 2nd of December, New York by the 11th, and London on the 20th—thus gaining several hours on the fatal date of the 21st of December. (Chapter 24)</i>	<i>This <u>left ten full days</u> to get back to London by the deadline. (Chapter 13)</i>

In the second example, the simplified version only states that Mr Fogg would want to get on board the ship without delay, while the original version carries a different meaning. Because Mr Fogg is taking care of a woman he saved named Aouda, he wants to leave as soon as he can to avoid any danger that involves Aouda. Here, the simplified version merely states that Mr Fogg is in a hurry, while the original version provides reasons why he is in a hurry.

In the third example, the amount of days left for Mr Fogg to return to London is stated clearly to avoid confusion. The original version is a bit too lengthy and might cause confusion with references to several dates. The writer of the simplified version has made a summary from the statement of the dates and thus simply states that Mr Fogg has ten days left to reach London. This is beneficial to readers of the simplified text as they manage to understand important points without being tangled in mathematical cues, albeit some readers might have enjoyed the cues.

4.3.2.3 Irregular cases of addition of time metaphors

In the example in Table 4.31 (no. 1), at a first glance the statements *twenty days behind* and *twenty days behindhand* look similar. However, looking at the POS of each word, it was found that *behind* in simplified version is a preposition and *behindhand* in original version is an adjective. Perhaps the writer of the simplified version thought that the use of the word *behindhand* is complicated and thus replaced it with a more familiar word, *behind*.

However, replacing a word with another similar word does not necessarily mean that the meaning would be easier to comprehend. Had the readers realized that the word *behindhand* is an adjective and is a synonym of the word *late*, it would make the meaning more comprehensible. Using the preposition *behind* and relating it to time would need the readers to understand the time metaphor A SCHEDULE IS A MOVING OBJECT.

Table 4.31

Irregular cases of additions of time metaphors

No.	Time Metaphor	Original	Simplified
1	A SCHEDULE IS A MOVING OBJECT	<i>“He has lost, gentleman,” said Andrew Stuart, “he has a hundred times lost! You know, besides, that the China the only steamer he could have taken from New York to get here in time arrived yesterday. I have seen a list of the passengers, and the name of Phileas Fogg is not among the...I think he will be at least <u>twenty days behind-hand</u>, and that Lord Albemarle will lose a cool five thousand.”</i> (Chapter 36)	<i>“He has lost, gentlemen. He has lost,” Andrew insisted. “The only steamer he could have been on was the China, and I know for a fact he wasn’t. My guess is that he’s at least <u>twenty days behind</u>.”</i> (Chapter 17)
2	TIME IS A RESOURCE	<i>The Custom House clock struck one. Mr Fogg observed that his watch was two hours too fast.</i> <i>Two hours! Admitting that he was at this moment taking an express train, he could reach London and the Reform Club by a quarter before nine, p.m. His forehead slightly wrinkled.</i> (Chapter 34)	<i>The Custom House clock struck one. His watch was two hours too slow. They must have <u>lost time somewhere along the way</u>.</i> (Chapter 16)

The next example (2) shows an irregularity between the simplified and the original version. In the simplified version, it is stated that the travellers have lost time because Mr Fogg’s watch is two hours too slow. However, in the original version, it is stated that Mr Fogg’s watch is two hours too fast. This alteration of events perhaps is not necessary because it does not capture exactly what Mr Fogg’s thought which is, because his watch is *two hours too fast*, he still would have time to make it to the Reform Club on time to win the wager.

4.3.3 Reduction in the originality (specificity and novelty) of metaphor

A reduction in the originality of metaphor refers to the act of making metaphors more general using conventional metaphorical expressions. This can be observed in Table 4.32:

Table 4.32

Reduction in the originality (specificity and novelty) of time metaphor

No.	Time Metaphor	Original	Simplified
1	TIME IS A CONTAINER	<i>“Colonel,” replied the conductor, “we have telegraphed to Omaha for a train, but it is not likely that it will reach Medicine Bow in less than six hours.”</i> (Chapter 28)	<i>“Of course not,” the conductor said. “We’ve telegraphed ahead for another train to meet us at Medicine Bow in six hours.”</i> (Chapter 13)
2	TIME IS A RESOURCE	<i>Fix did not look at the state of things in the same light. The storm greatly pleased him. His satisfaction would have been complete had the Rangoon been forced to retreat before the violence of wind and waves. Each delay filled him with hope, for it became more and more probable that Fogg would be obliged to remain some days at Hong Kong; and now the heavens themselves became his allies, with the gusts and squalls. It mattered not that they made him sea-sick—he made no account of this inconvenience; and, whilst his body was writhing under their effects, his spirit bounded with hopeful exultation.</i> (Chapter 18)	<i>Of course, Fix was happy about the delay. It meant that his warrant had even more time to arrive.</i> (Chapter 10)

In the first example in Table 4.32, the simplified version states that the conductor has arranged for another train to pick up the travellers in six hours' time. It does not have any sense of urgency which is a necessary element found in the original version. However, in the original version, the conductor states that he has already contacted for the train to be arranged, but the train will not necessarily reach Medicine Bow in six hours' time, hence giving a sense of uncertainty and excitement to the situation. This is another example where the act of changing as little as one word in a text could have different unintended complications.

The second example is about Detective Fix who finds out that Mr Fogg's journey has been delayed due to a storm. In the simplified version, it is mentioned that Fix is pleased with the delay as this means that the warrant he requested would probably make it on time now that they are all stranded on the boat. In the original version, the metaphor appears after several statements about Mr Fogg's worries of not getting to the next location on time. After explaining this, the discussion about Fix's feelings towards the delay is a lengthy one, describing how each delay would give him more hopes of capturing Mr Fogg, and even if he has to go through many unpleasant things, such as staying longer on the boat, he would still be pleased, and in fact, merrier than others on the journey. In the original version, Fix is more than happy. He is ecstatic and this gives him a hopeful thought and elevates his determination to capture Mr Fogg. The reduction in the specificity and novelty of the time metaphor in the simplified text has lessened the depth of an antagonistic character in the novel.

4.3.4 Replacement of metaphors with metaphors from different source scenarios

Metaphors are also replaced with metaphors from different source scenarios, where the target domain is similar, in this case, time, is still expressed figuratively but using a different source domain. The examples are in Table 4.33.

Table 4.33

Replacement of time metaphors with metaphors from different source scenarios

No.	Time Metaphor	Original	Simplified
1	TIME IS DISTANCE → TIME IS A RESOURCE	<i>The Parsee, who was quite familiar with the roads and paths in the district, declared that they would <u>gain twenty miles</u> by striking directly through the forest. (Chapter 12)</i>	<i>Ali had told them that they could <u>save a lot of time</u> by taking a shortcut, and so there they were, but it was much rougher than the normal road. (Chapter 7)</i>
2	TIME IS A CONTAINER → TIME IS A RESOURCE	<i>Soon after, Phileas Fogg, Sir Francis Cromarty, and Passepartout, installed in a carriage with Aouda, who had the best seat, were whirling at full speed towards Benares. It was a run of eighty miles, and was accomplished in <u>two hours</u>. During the journey, the young woman fully recovered her senses. (Chapter 14)</i>	<i>Sir Francis carried Aouda and carefully set her down in the cabin. Soon, they were speeding along towards Benares. <u>A few hours later</u>, Aouda woke up. She was startled and scared. She was also surprised to be on a speeding train and not trapped in a hut with bandits all around. (Chapter 8)</i>

In the first example in Table 4.33, the lines are taken from the scene where the Parsee (Ali) who was the guide for the travellers in India states that they could *gain twenty miles* by going directly through the forest. In this instance, although it is not stated directly that the purpose of cutting through the forest is to save time, it is stated that they would *gain twenty miles*, which, in actuality, would have meant to save time, as that is

what Mr Fogg always insists on. Gaining twenty miles means travelling in less time, using the time metaphor TIME IS DISTANCE.

In the simplified version, the writer has decided to make it clear to the readers that the purpose of taking the shortcut is to save some time (TIME IS A RESOURCE) even though it would mean that the journey will be more rigorous than taking the regular route. In short, the time metaphor is not mentioned per se, but the original purpose is maintained; to save time for the journey so the travellers would gain advantages over their own fight with time. This clarifies why they need to take a different route to gain more time, even though it will be dangerous.

In the next example, Aouda is now safe in the hands of Mr Fogg and his entourage, and she is carried in a carriage to their next destination, Benares. The duration of Aouda's rest in the carriage is not mentioned per se in the original version. However, it is stated that their journey was completed in two hours, and that during the journey Aouda woke up. From the time metaphor TIME IS A CONTAINER, the simplified version of the similar scene is expressed using the time metaphor TIME IS A RESOURCE.

4.3.5 Removal of metaphors

There are instances where in the simplified text metaphors are removed entirely from the original text. In the first example in Table 4.34, the expression "*Had the hour of adversity come?*" is muttered by Passepartout as he could not stay calm due to the fact that they are losing more time as the storm which they have to go through does not seem to cease.

Table 4.34

Removal of time metaphors

No	Time Metaphor	Original	Simplified
1	TIME PASSING IS MOTION OF AN OBJECT	<i>Passepartout was enraged beyond expression by the unpropitious weather. Everything had gone so well till now! Earth and sea had seemed to be at his master's service; steamers and railways obeyed him; wind and steam united to speed his journey. <u>Had the hour of adversity come?</u></i> (Chapter 18)	<i>And then there was Passepartout. The poor man paced up and down and back and forth. He was so worried.</i> (Chapter 9)
2	TIME IS A RESOURCE	<i>You must <u>regain eight hours</u>. Do you wish to try to do so?</i> (Chapter 31)	<i>"I might have a way," Fix said. Everyone looked at him. "Last night, a man spoke to me of a sled with sails that could take us to Omaha. We could catch up with the train to New York there."</i> (Chapter 14)
	TIME PASSING IS AN OBSERVER'S MOTION OVER A LANDSCAPE	<i>Certainly, however secure they felt, <u>minutes had never seemed so long</u> to them!</i> (Chapter 36)	<i>The five gentlemen looked at one another. They were all nervous. They tried to pick up their cards and finish the hand, but no one could take his eyes off the clock.</i> (Chapter 17)

The lengthy description of his feelings about the delay expresses that the journey is as important to Passepartout as it is to Mr Fogg. He echoes a similar disappointment as his master, and Passepartout's thoughts are sometimes being used to convey Mr Fogg's thoughts because Mr Fogg is a man of quiet and reserve and does not express his feelings as openly as Passepartout. Therefore, reading about Passepartout's feelings is almost similar to finding out Mr Fogg's feelings even if he does not show them.

In the first example, the simplified text merely states *And then there was Passepartout* which insinuates his character is an additional, less important even, entity in the story. He is described as being merely worried, whereas in the original version, Passepartout's mutters about whether the adversity has finally caught up with them and his gloominess about it stresses the importance of Passepartout's character. It also enhances his nationality as a French man who is, as evident in the story, more expressive than Mr Fogg.

The next example is a conversation between Fix and Mr Fogg. The travellers have missed the train that was supposed to take them to Omaha, however, Fix has a solution and he suggests that Mr Fogg should try it, since he wants all of them to reach London as soon as they can so he can arrest Mr Fogg in his own land. In the simplified version, Fix merely makes a suggestion about taking the sled to go to Omaha, however, in the original version, Fix actually helps Mr Fogg to make calculations about how many hours he needs to gain in order to be able to make it to Omaha in time. Fix is more than willing to help Mr Fogg in the original version, but the simplified version leaves out many details about their conversation, including the part where they calculate the hours needed to gain advantage on their journey.

Taking out these time metaphors means taking out details about Mr Fogg's journey, and the simplified version does not do justice to Fox's determination to get them all back to London as soon as they can. Fix might be regarded as a good character in the simplified text whereas he has his own agenda in helping Mr Fogg.

In the final example below, the simplified version states that Mr Fogg's friends are all nervous while waiting for his arrival and they could not but stare at the clock. In the

original version, the last minute before the arrival of Mr Fogg further emphasizes the importance of time in the novel, as the time metaphor TIME PASSING IS AN OBSERVER'S MOTION OVER A LANDSCAPE suggests. This metaphor carries the notion that the observers (human beings) are static and time is the entity that moves. In some cases, human beings cannot do anything while watching time move, and this describes exactly what is happening in this scene; that Mr Fogg's friends are helpless as time goes by. This metaphor is not present in the simplified text and has possibly taken out the emphasis on time in the novel and its movement which cannot be stopped by humans.

4.4 Summary

In this chapter, I have discussed the ways corpus-based methodology can be used in metaphor studies, the time metaphors found in both the original and simplified versions of the novel *Around the World in 80 Days* and finally, the comparison of time metaphors found in the simplified version against time metaphors found in the original version. I then continued to give the implications of these changes by categorizing them into five types of pattern of change and giving detailed explanations of the changes.

In the next chapter, I discuss and review the research questions of this study and provide a conclusion for this study by taking into account the findings stated in this chapter.

CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSION

In this chapter, I will summarize the findings in this study, discuss the implication of the findings and finally, provide recommendations for further investigation into using the corpus-based method to study metaphors in simplified texts. Considering the findings of established literature, I will conclude the findings of this study and present its importance to the fields of corpus linguistics, metaphor studies and text simplification.

It has been stated at the beginning of this study that the aims of the study are: 1) To extract metaphorical linguistic expressions using corpus linguistics software; 2) To find out the distribution of time metaphors in an original text and its simplified version; 3) To see the difference in the distribution of time metaphors in the texts; and 4) To investigate the effects of the simplification process on the distribution of time metaphor. The first aim will be answered by the first research question, the second and third aims by research question number two and finally, the third aim will be answered by research question number three (see to 1.3).

5.1 How can corpus-based methodology be applied for analysis in metaphor studies?

Semino (2006) posits that the availability of corpus has given access to researchers to conduct studies on the patterns of language on a large scale, and therefore has enabled a better, more dependable and authentic analysis of conceptual metaphors. Not only has the availability of corpus given access to the representativeness of certain word or

semantic domains, corpus linguistics contributes to the creation of many sophisticated automatic text analysis softwares, such as Wmatrix which provides parts of speech and semantic domain tagging. The process of using corpora in metaphor studies is effectively summed up by Stefanowitsch (2006) as follows:

The basic idea behind this method is fairly straightforward: we choose a lexical item referring to the target domain under investigation and extract (a sample of) its occurrences in the corpus. In this sample, we then identify all metaphorical expressions that the search word is part of and group them into coherent groups representing general mappings.

In short, the use of corpora in metaphor studies has enabled many researchers access to large document analysis, where the use of metaphor in discourse can be studied from a wider perspective than using the traditional approach, i.e.: meticulous reading of each word in the item of discourse selected. It is in line with the notion that metaphor studies could benefit from multi-perspective studies by employing several techniques from the fields of discourse analysis and corpus-based methodology, among others (Semino and Steen, 2008).

5.1.1 USAS tagger

In this study, the USAS tagger has proven its ability to capture all words related to time in order to form a conceptualization of how time is viewed in both the original and simplified version of the novel *Around the World in 80 Days*. Words such as time, minutes, days etc. were systematically gathered and categorized according to their

frequency of appearance in target text (OT and ST) compared to their presence in a reference corpus (BNC Imaginative Writing).

The USAS tagger is an example of how using computer-based analysis of language could contribute a major reassessment of how figurative language analysis such as metaphor is conducted. In manual identification, a text must be read word by word in order to identify the metaphorical linguistic expressions. It is not only time-consuming but it is also potentially demotivating especially when researchers have to go through texts with proportionate lengths. Studies on various types of texts with diversified purposes such as multi-word expressions, thesauri and dictionary building have found USAS to be highly accommodating (Löfberg et al, 2003; Piao et al, 2004).

With the USAS tagger, a study that focuses on a particular target domain such as this current study can be conducted in a systematic manner, while the tagger also enables access to analyse longer texts compared to manual analysis. By focusing on the specific target domain or source domain, or both, the process can be done in a shorter time. Apart from looking at a particular target or source domain, a researcher could also pick up a text of interest, for example a reading text for learning English for Business Studies and analyse the salient features of the text. Using USAS, a researcher would be able to pinpoint some of the ways a business discourse is presented, and this most certainly would yield source domains from fields unrelated to business, for example, SOCIAL ENTITY IS A PLANT (Koller et al, 2008).

This is possible due to the accessible subsets of a larger corpus such as the British National Corpus (BNC) which is used as the reference corpus in Wmatrix. Using specific corpus subsets would allow a more comprehensive analysis of the salient

presence of certain concepts in specific texts. This is consistent with the findings of Semino et al (2005) where it is stated that since the USAS tagger in Wmatrix is able to allocate every word to a semantic domain or field, it can be observed that USAS corresponds to the domains which constitute a metaphor.

5.1.2 POS tagger CLAWS7

The POS tagger is effective in several ways in this study: it helps to give a general description of the texts according to their distribution of POS, it aids identification of source domains and presents evidence of figurative uses of time-related words or words surrounding time-related words. In giving a general description of the texts, we are able to discern the constitution of the texts according to the distribution of POS.

Studies focusing on the parts of speech in metaphorical expressions have found that the most common types of metaphors can be divided into nominal, verbal and prepositional metaphors (Dorst, 2011; Goatly, 1997; Cameron, 2003; Shutova, Sun & Korhonen, 2010; Khudyakora, 2007) In this study, it was observed that verbal metaphors dominate the formation of metaphorical expressions, followed by prepositions, adjectives, adverbs and nouns. However, if we take into account that all time-related words are nouns, it can be observed that most metaphorical expressions found in this study constitute of verbs and nouns.

5.1.3 Concordance as a useful feature of corpus-based methodology

The use of corpus-based methodology usually includes the representation of data in the form of concordance lines. In other words, concordance is the heart of corpus-based methodology during the process of identifying and analysing the data in hand. Wmatrix presents its findings in the form of statistics and generates concordances of particular words in the data set.

In analysing metaphors, the ability to see the words that surround a particular chosen word is highly functional, as the basis of metaphor study is to look at the adjacent words and surrounding words belonging to a particular target domain. Semino (2008) has analysed the words surrounding '*rich*' and found the real use of the words as opposed to their prescriptive use in the dictionary and highly recommends the use of concordance in distinguishing the metaphorical and non-metaphorical use of expressions. In this study, it is evident that the use of concordance is very helpful and has contributed to the systematic collection and identification of metaphorical expressions in both the original text and simplified text.

5.2 How are metaphors changed and adapted from its original source text to its simplified text?

Metaphors in general can be used to “understand and experience one kind of thing in terms of another” (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980), construct new meanings by combining different ideas and systems of knowledge (Koller, et al, 2008), using expressions from the shortest form of a word to sentence length phrases (Wikberg, 2008). Taking the definitions given above, it can be summarized that in general, metaphor is used to make

the unknown abstract concept known to the people, by combining tangible concepts to aid understanding of intangible concepts.

In the process of simplification, it was observed that time metaphors are indeed adapted, reproduced, altered and in several cases, taken out entirely when a text is simplified. These changes can be seen in the distribution of time metaphors across the OT and ST.

5.2.1 Metaphors in OT

Dorst (2011) observes that metaphors in literary texts such as prose fiction are used to convey subjective experience, to present an alternative worldview and the formation of complex textual patterns. In this study, the types of metaphors found are indeed used to fulfil the characteristics mentioned above. There are eight types of time metaphors found in the original text. In total, there are 206 metaphorical expressions related to time.

These metaphors are used to convey subjective experience as the novel is about a journey that has never been made before. Therefore, there are a lot of references to time which is central to the discussion as the characters have a time limit and they go through many adventurous events in order to finish the journey within a specific time. In discussing a concept as abstract as time, the characters conceptualize time as space and motion, resource, money, a moving schedule and personify time as the controlling element.

5.2.2 Metaphors in ST

Out of nine types of time metaphors found in OT, six of them are found in the ST. In the figurative description of time, the personification and TIME IS DISTANCE metaphors are not found in the simplified version of *Around the World in 80 Days*. This result is in accordance with the study conducted by Deignan, Littlemore and Semino (2013) where personification is one of two types of metaphors found to be missing in the simplified version of the text analysed in the study.

Personification perhaps was removed because of its nature to portray how events have their own doer and in many instances the doer is not necessarily a human being. In this current study, the personification of time shows how in certain cases, time is actually the powerful force behind the success of the journey around the world. To understand that there is an unspoken force behind the actions of events, readers need to possess a high level of interpretation skills which are probably deemed as unnecessary distractions for readers who want to read a simplified text.

Although the rest of the metaphors are reproduced albeit with many changes to the expressions structurally and semantically, many of them seem to diverge from the original intended meaning. In some cases, the addition of metaphors in the simplified text is intentionally done to sum up several occasions to adhere to text length limit. This has certainly changed the course of events that the readers are supposed to comprehend in order to be informed of the adventurous journey that the characters have gone through.

5.3 What are the implications of these changes?

The final analysis in this study is to look at the patterns of change in time metaphors found in the simplified version and their equivalents in the original novel. Next, the discussion moves on to the implications of those changes by side-by-side comparison of the time metaphors found in the simplified text with time metaphors (or the similar part in which time metaphors have been added or deleted) in the original text.

It was found that there are five patterns of change which affect time metaphors during the simplification process. First, time metaphors are reproduced in several ways - without any adjustments, using different words, different sentence types or structures and reproduction due to inevitable reasons. Second, metaphors are added in the simplified text where they are stated non-metaphorically in the original text where time metaphors are used to sum up several occasions and to make clarification. Third, time metaphors are reproduced with less specificity and novelty. Fourth, metaphors are replaced with metaphors from different source scenarios. Fifth, time metaphors found in the original text are removed during simplification. References to previous findings are from Deignan, Littlemore and Semino (2013) as these patterns of change are found to be used in clarifying implication of simplification upon the distribution of metaphors from an original text to a simplified text.

5.3.1 Reproduction of metaphors with minimal adjustments

The reproduction of metaphors from the original text into the simplified text demonstrates the importance of the time concept in the novel. Original metaphors carry

original conceptualizations of time, therefore, they are able to deliver the original intended message through the metaphorical expressions of time.

The findings from Deignan, Littlemore and Semino (2013) suggest that there are systematic and regular attempts to ensure that the figurative language in the original text is reproduced with as little change as possible. Archaic words are replaced with more modern ones and it was also found that the challenge of understanding the text was not in the language per se but it remains in the cultural background against which the text is written. In this study, it was found that although there has been no systematic effort to ensure that the originality of figurative language is retained, several types of reproduction of metaphors are apparent in the simplified text. There are instances where metaphors are recycled word-by-word, where the insistence of the characters on being time-abiding people is reaffirmed. There are also reproductions using a different choice of words as modern and simpler words are deemed to be more suitable for readers of the simplified text. Reproductions of metaphors are also made by changing sentence types or structures and this potentially hinders the readers from the conflict and negotiation contained in the original text. Finally, there is the inevitable reproduction of the metaphorical title of the novel, *Around the World in 80 Days* which contains the metaphor TIME IS A CONTAINER.

5.3.2 Addition of metaphors

In Deignan, Littlemore and Semino (2013), tuning devices are used to make metaphors more apparent to readers. However, they have found several unnecessary additions where modern readers could have possibly understood the text without the addition of metaphors. Metaphor is made explicit when the modern words used are still insufficient

for the readers. They also observed that the tuning device additions might have achieved the communicative purpose intended with the simplification.

In this study, the addition of metaphors has been found to act as a means of summing up several occasions and making clarifications. Many occasions are found to be replaced with a time metaphor, most commonly the metaphorical expression “as time passed”. This might work in shortening the text, however, taking out several events might have an impact on the overall understanding of the story or the message intended by the original author.

Clarifications are also made by adding tuning devices where clear statements replace ambiguous ones to avoid confusion, especially during the parts where the main character counts the days gained and lost, and there are mathematical descriptions that might be difficult for readers who just want the gist and not the lengthy description. There are also irregularities where the addition of tuning devices has had unintended consequences where it causes confusion for a person who reads both versions of the text.

5.3.3 Reduction in the originality (specificity and novelty) of metaphor

The reduction in the originality of metaphor is found to cause the loss of the metaphorical richness of the original text (Deignan, Littlemore and Semino, 2013). It could also possible deplete the overall interpretative demands, although it might come in handy where it increases the readers’ access to text comprehension.

In the current study, reduction in the originality of metaphors is found to change the course of events in the simplified text. It reduces the intensity of characters' emotions. Since the main character is quiet and reserved, other characters are made to be more expressive hence there are many references of time metaphor which heighten the intensity of emotion of those characters, such as Passepartout and Detective Fix. When the metaphors are reduced in terms of their intensity, there might be a loss of excitement or empathy thus hindering the readers in capturing the exact intended messages.

5.3.4 Replacement of metaphors with metaphors from different source scenarios

Exploiting different source scenarios in metaphorical expressions is done to fulfil the communicative purpose of the simplified text (Deignan, Littlemore and Semino, 2013). However, it does not automatically mean that readers are able to comprehend the precise meaning as found in the original text. In this study, there are several replacements but they are not very significant. Nevertheless, a change in the source scenario or source domain could definitely change the course of events or worse, could give the readers a different message.

5.3.5 Removal of metaphors

Deignan, Littlemore and Semino (2013) have also found that metaphors are removed in exchange for non-metaphorical phrases during the simplification process. This is done to remove obscure words or figurative expressions. Commercial metaphors and personification are found to be the most affected type of metaphors to be taken out in the text used in their studies.

In this study, time passing is not as metaphorically expressed as it is in its original text. Other than that, similar to Deignan, Littlemore and Semino (2013), personification is also found to be one of the most common metaphors removed. As a result, the emphasis on the power of time to prevail over the power of human beings in keeping up with their original plans is not as apparent in the simplified text. The metaphor where time is moving and the observer is static is a powerful use of figurative language which shows how human beings have no control over time. Taking out this metaphor would definitely misdirect the readers thus missing out the original message.

5.4 Limitations of the research

This study demonstrates the use of a corpus-based methodology in analysing time metaphors in one original text and one simplified text. Therefore, it is in no way intended to be generalized across all simplified versions of English novels. The metaphors analysed in this research only encompass the metaphors regarding time, and admittedly, it is not the only metaphor with significant appearance in the texts. However, it is hoped that future studies would delve deeper into the distribution of metaphors in simplified literary texts as it is a popular choice for readers who do not have access to the original text.

5.5 Summary

Simplifying text for a different set of readers is not an easy task. Changes in text occur in so many ways, and it is suggested in this study that one of the ways to comprehend the nature of changes that occur in a simplified text is by using a corpus-based methodology which compares the significant key domains. There is a significant

presence of the conceptualization of time in both the original and simplified version of the novel *Around the World in 80 Days*. These metaphors are manifested through the use of various linguistic metaphorical expressions about time throughout the texts. It has been shown that the reduction of metaphors mostly occurs with personification and time metaphors that make reference to distance.

This study does not in any way suggest that the simplified version of the novel that has been chosen for the analysis is lacking. Instead, it thrives on the differences between the texts in distribution of time metaphors in order to form an understanding of how figurative language is revised, taken out, added or reduced whether the actions are intended or otherwise.

It is suggested that the simplification of figurative language in the novel *Around the World in 80 Days* perhaps is beneficial in fulfilling the needs of encouraging and scaffolding reading materials for readers who are not ready to tackle the original text. However, in the midst of fulfilling the need to create or rewrite the text into a simpler edition to give access to readers who are deemed to be potentially engaged with a text containing fewer words and simpler sentences, there might be unanticipated effects on the use of figurative language such as metaphor.

In this study, it was found that the simplification of the original text has had unexpected effects on its metaphor use in specific time metaphor. What is more important, the question of whether an element of language as elaborate and subject to opinion as a literary text could potentially be analysed with a corpus-based methodology has been partially addressed in this study.

Using a corpus-based methodology in analysing a single example of simplification involving an original text and its simplified version has given many insights into what really happens behind the process of shortening and simplifying a novel which contains a significant number of time metaphors, a process that might not be understood in real time (while simplifying the text) but can possibly be unravelled with the help of a systematic computer-based analysis such as corpus linguistics software.

This study only focuses on one type of metaphor, which is the time metaphor. It should be noted that in order to fully comprehend the effects of simplification on an original text, there are many other unexplored elements which could potentially become another chapter in the discussion on using a corpus-based methodology in analysing figurative language, such as other types of metaphors which are found to be prevalent in the results from the automated analysis of key semantic domains.

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